2005

Understanding work behaviors and turnover intentions of students employed in university dining services

Swathi Ravichandran
Iowa State University

Understanding work behaviors and turnover intentions of students employed in university dining services

by

Swathi Ravichandran

A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Major: Foodservice and Lodging Management

Program of Study Committee:
Shirley A. Gilmore, Major Professor
Catherine Strohbehn
Amit Sharma
Florence A. Hamrick
John Wong

Iowa State University

Ames, Iowa

2005

Graduate College
Iowa State University

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation of

Swathi Ravichandran

has met the dissertation requirements of Iowa State University

Signature was redacted for privacy.

Major Professor

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Major Program

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES vi

LIST OF TABLES vii

ABSTRACT viii

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION 1

Assumptions 3

Dissertation Organization 4

CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW 5

Organizational Citizenship Behavior 5

Theories Underlying Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research 7

Social Exchange Theory 7

Norm of Reciprocity 7

Equity Theory 9

Social Learning Theory 10

Social Information Processing Theory 11

Leader-Member Exchange Theory 12

Traditional and Super Leadership 13

Transformational and Transactional Leadership 14

Antecedents and Consequences of Organzational Citizenship Behavior 17

Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior 17

Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior 17

Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Hospitality 19

Turnover snd Organizational Citizenship Behavior 20

Employee Empowerment 21

Advantages of Empowerment 22

Costs of Empowerment 23

Empowerment and Power Distance 24
Empowerment Literature in Hospitality 26
Empowerment and Employee Turnover 28
Management Strategies and Turnover 29
Empowerment and Turnover in Hospitality 29
Rationale for the Current Study 31
Conceptual Frameworks and Research Propositions 32
Conceptual Frameworks 32
Research Propositions 34
Summary 35
CHAPTER III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 36
Use of Human Subjects in Research 36
Sample Selections 37
Instrument Design 37
Pilot Study 40
Data Collection 40
Data Analysis 41
CHAPTER IV. RESULTS 43
Demographic Characteristics and Descriptive Statistics 45
Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Results 50
Path Analysis Results – Transformational Leadership and OCBO 56
Path Analysis Results – Employee Empowerment and Intent to Turnover 60
Correlation Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results 62
Summary 64

CHAPTER V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS 65
Discussion 65
Managerial Implications 71
Limitations 72
Future Research 73
REFERENCES 77
APPENDICES 87
Appendix A – Correlation Matrix 1 88
Appendix B – Correlation Matrix 2 90
Appendix C – ISU Committee on the Use of Human Subjects Review Approval 92
Appendix D – Cover Letter 106
Appendix E – Survey Instrument 108
Appendix F – Recruitment Flyer 116

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Conceptual model showing formation of OCB perceptions 33

Figure 2. Conceptual model showing influence of empowerment in turnover intentions 34

Figure 3. Alternative path models showing changes in chi-square scores (OCB) 57

Figure 4. Fully recursive model showing significant paths (OCB) 59

Figure 5. Parsimonious path model (OCB) 60

Figure 6. Fully recursive model showing significant paths (empowerment) 61

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of respondents 43

Table 2. Reasons for employment at UDS and intent to turnover 46

Table 3. Item-specific descriptive statistics and reliability 48

Table 4. Hierarchical regression results for influence of supervisor OCBI 52

Table 5. Stepwise regression results – Predictors of employee OCBI towards manager 53

Table 6. Hierarchical regression results for influence of co-worker OCBI 54

Table 7. Stepwise regression results – Predictors of employee OCBI towards co-workers ... 55

Table 8. Transformational leadership and OCBO - Model Descriptions 56

Table 9. Factor loadings, standard errors, and t-values of OCBI and OCBO scales 63

Table 10. Summary of major findings and associated managerial implications 65

ABSTRACT

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and empowerment are concepts identified as predictors of employee turnover. Employee turnover is a concern within various segments of the hospitality and leisure sector. The purpose of this study was to examine the influence that empowerment and OCB perceptions of students employed in one university dining services, had on their intent to turnover. In addition, this study examined the influence that managers and co-workers behaviors had on the formation of OCBI (OCB towards individuals) and OCBO (OCB towards organization) in student employees. Influence of power distance on the formation of empowerment perceptions also was studied. Results showed that both OCBI and OCBO had a weak, but significant negative relationship with student employee intent to turnover. Managers and co-workers were also found to influence exhibition of OCBI by student employees. Selected dimensions of transformational leadership were found to have both direct and indirect impact on the exhibition of OCBO by student employees. Another interesting result was that power distance did not mediate the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction, as suggested by past studies. Empowerment had an indirect effect on student employee intent to turnover, through job satisfaction. Managerial implications are addressed and directions for future research are suggested.

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

University foodservice managers employ a large number of part-time employees to provide flexibility in staffing (Neumann, Stevens, & Graham, 2001). They rely heavily on student employees to fill hundreds of part-time positions (Gray, Niehoff, & Miller, 2000). However, in a study involving students employed in university dining services, Bartlett, Probber, and Scerbo (1999) stated that turnover, absenteeism, and lack of motivation were challenges facing managers of student employees. Panelists in a videoconference sponsored by the National Association of College & University Food Services stated that recruiting and retaining student employees were common problems in college and foodservice operations (Wright & Kadis, 1998). Lin (2003) found that a high level of turnover was prevalent among students employed in university dining services at the university.

To combat the turnover problem, university foodservice directors are offering incentives for recruitment and retention. They also are trying to increase the number of international student employees who are not allowed to work off-campus (Neumann et al., 2001). An increase in the total population of international students on United States campuses could increase international students employed by University Dining Services (UDS).

Employee turnover is a major concern for various segments of the hospitality and leisure sector. According to the Employment Policy Foundation (2004), turnover was highest in the leisure and hospitality industry (46.4%) compared to the private sector (25.1%) for the 12 months ending August 2004.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998) and employee empowerment (Hogan, 1992) are concepts identified as predictors of employee turnover. OCBs are defined as discretionary workplace behaviors that are not recognized directly by a formal reward system (Organ, 1997). The target of OCB can be an organization or individual (Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCB-Organization (OCBO) includes behaviors that benefit the organization in general, and OCB-Individual (OCBI) includes behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly contribute to the organization. These concepts have received very little attention in the hospitality industry. Neumann (as cited in Neumann et al., 2001) stated that the behavior of managers toward employees could decide student employees' tenure. No articles were found that studied the influence of managers and co-workers in the exhibition of OCB by student employees in the context of university dining. Studies relating OCB to turnover in this context also were not found.

Graham (1988) stated that transformational leaders should also have an impact on extra-role behaviors exhibited by followers. Researchers state that transformational leaders change the basic values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers. This enables followers to perform above and beyond the minimum levels required by an organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Few empirical studies were found that related empowerment and intent to turnover in hospitality. No articles were found in hospitality literature that studied the effect of empowerment on turnover as moderated by power distance and job satisfaction.

In this quantitative study, the influence that managers and co-workers had in the exhibition of OCB by student employees was studied. The impact that OCBO and OCBI had on student employee intent to turnover also was examined. In addition, the influence of

power distance on empowerment perceptions of student employees was investigated. The relationship between empowerment perceptions and intent to turnover also was tested. The sample for this quantitative study was all part-time students employed in dining services at a four-year public, Midwestern, land-grant university. Students employed in dining services of this university work in a variety of foodservice operations including the food court comprising several restaurants, independent restaurants located on-campus, the university conference center, cafes, and residence hall dining.

Assumptions

This research was conducted under the following assumptions:

1. Respondents in this study are part-time employees because the university does not permit students to work for more than 20 hours on-campus.
2. Student employees are able to rate themselves, co-workers, and supervisors on questions related to OCBI.
3. Student employees are able to rate supervisors on transformational leadership dimensions.
4. Student employees are able to rate themselves on questions related to OCBO, job satisfaction, job autonomy, power distance, and intent to turnover.
5. The scale values applied in this study are appropriate.
6. Students view behaviors listed in the survey instrument as desirable, except those that are reverse-coded.
7. Students will respond to the questionnaire truthfully.
8. Students will answer agreement-disagreement items based on their feelings.

Dissertation Organization

Using the traditional format, this dissertation consists of a general introduction to the research project, a review of literature, methodology used for data collection and analysis, results, discussion of findings and suggestions for future research, references, and appendices. Appendices contain all materials used in the research project: ISU Committee on the Use of Human Subjects Review approval, cover letter emailed to students, data collection instrument used in the study, and recruitment material used in the study.

CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a synopsis of theories and concepts underlying the development of the research models used in this study. The first section discusses the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) concept, theories surrounding OCB research, antecedents and consequences of OCB, relationship between OCB and employee turnover, and OCB research in hospitality. The second section summarizes research in employee empowerment, empowerment in the context of cultural differences, empowerment literature in hospitality, and the relationship between empowerment and employee turnover. Section three discusses conceptual frameworks and research objectives of this study.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organ (1988) defined OCB as discretionary workplace behavior. Such behaviors are not recognized directly by a formal reward system, but they promote effective functioning in the organization. He defines discretionary behavior as one that is not part of the job description or is not part of specific terms of an individual's employment contract with the organization. Exhibiting OCB is a matter of personal choice, and its omission is not punishable. Organ identified five dimensions of OCB; altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and conscientiousness. Altruism involves voluntarily helping a co-worker with work-related problems. Sportsmanship includes tolerating inevitable inconveniences at work without grumbling. Civic virtue is being involved in the organization's political processes and larger issues affecting the organization. Courtesy is alerting others in the organization about changes that may affect their work. Finally, conscientiousness requires going well

beyond minimum requirements with respect to behaviors such as attendance, conserving resources, and punctuality. More recent conceptualizations of OCB offer slightly different categorizations such as helping behavior (altruism) and organizational loyalty, allegiance to organizational leaders and promotion of organization's image (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Backrach, 2000).

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) distinguished among several different types of pro-social organizational behaviors, depending on whether or not such behaviors were functional or dysfunctional for the organization; role-prescribed or extra-role (discretionary behaviors such as OCB); and directed at an individual (co-worker or supervisor), the organization, or any other target (e.g., customer). It is clear that OCB is functional and extra-role (beyond employment obligations) in nature based on Organ's (1988) definition. The target of OCB can be an organization or individual. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) termed pro-social acts toward organizations and individuals as being "sufficiently independent." However, only few studies have made this distinction.

Williams and Anderson (1991) identified two broad categories of OCB based on target of reception, namely OCBO (behaviors that benefit the organization in general), and OCBI (behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly contribute to the organization). The authors justify this distinction by stating that antecedents may be different for OCB types based on the target receivers. Factor analysis of data obtained from 127 employees' supervisors supported the distinction between these two types of OCB in a study by William and Anderson (1991). Results of their study also showed a distinction between each of two types of OCB with in-role (employment obligations) behavior, which has been a general concern regarding OCB research (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Somech and

Drach-Zahavy (2004) used factor analysis and found support for the existence of OCBO and OCBI as two separate constructs. The authors came to this conclusion after analyzing data collected from 751 elementary school staff members representing 31 schools in Israel. However, a factor analysis conducted by Bolon (1997), in a study involving hospital employees (n = 202), was unable to provide support for the OCBO construct.

Theories Underlying Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research

OCB research has been based on several theories and concepts such as social exchange theory, norm of reciprocity, equity theory, social learning theory, and social information processing theory, transformational and transactional leadership, and leader-member exchange theory. Following is a description of each of these theories and their association with OCB.

Social Exchange Theory

Blau (1964) defined social exchange as voluntary actions of individuals motivated by returns they receive from others. The author identified the following characteristics of social exchange:

(a) Social exchange involves unspecified obligations. With social exchange, there may be some general expectation of a future return, but details are not specified beforehand. Obligations do not have a specific price tag. The nature of the future obligation cannot be bargained and is left to the discretion of the person who is obligated.

(b) Only social exchange invokes feelings of obligation, gratitude, and trust.

Norm of Reciprocity

Gouldner (1960) stated that for norm of reciprocity to exist, two conditions must be satisfied: (a) people should help those who have previously helped them; and (b) people

should not injure those who have helped them. Obligations could vary based on the imputed value of benefits received, status of participants within a society, and culture of participants.

The term, "norm of equivalent reciprocity" was coined by Gouldner (1960) as an extension of norm of reciprocity. The focus of this concept was on the equivalence of returns, as defined by actors in the situation.

The need to reciprocate for benefits received in order to continue receiving them served as the starting point for social interaction and group structure (Gouldner, 1960). Blau (1964), on the other hand, maintained that the norm of reciprocity merely reinforced and stabilized tendencies inherent in the character of social exchange itself. He stated that when people form groups, and before common norms or role expectations have taken shape among group members, advantages to be gained from entering into exchange relations define the development of a network of social relationships and group structure. Eventually, group norms (including the norm of reciprocity) were developed to regulate and limit the exchange transactions.

Organ (1990) noted that employees would be more willing to exhibit OCB if they were in a condition of social exchange with the organization. Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ (1993) tested for existence of social exchange between employees' perceptions of job fairness and OCB. Questionnaires were distributed to 230 managers and 1,500 employees of a cable television company. Results showed that employees' perceptions of job fairness were related positively to OCB dimensions of courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship.

Using social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, Deckop, Cirka, and Andersson (2003) hypothesized that a significant cause of an employee's helping behavior is how much OCB the employee has received from co-workers. Two sets of questionnaires

were sent to 1,162 alumni from a small liberal arts college in the northeast United States (U.S.). Alumni were asked to fill out one questionnaire, and the other was to be given to his/her immediate supervisor. Completed questionnaires were received from 177 (response rate of 15%) employees and 157 (response rate of 12%) supervisors. The authors concluded that OCB received was related to helping behavior after controlling for several antecedents of helping behavior identified in past research.

Equity Theory

Adams (1965) proposed that individuals were motivated by the perception of inequity (measured in terms of input and outcome ratios) in comparison to a referent individual. Inputs include characteristics such as age, education, ability, and social status that an individual brings into the social exchange process, while outcomes are rewards received as a result of the exchange process. Efforts are made to restore equity, if an individual's outcome/input ratio is less than that of the referent individual. The individual who perceives lower equity compared to the referent individual could choose to seek higher outcomes relative to his/her inputs. The individual could also reduce inputs in an attempt to restore equity by not performing prescribed tasks. Adams (1965) cautions that employees will attempt to restore equity even when outcomes are in excess of inputs.

Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1985) introduced the "equity sensitivity" construct as an extension to Adam's (1965) equity theory. The authors hypothesized and concluded that there were three levels of perceived equity sensitiveness: (a) equity sensitives – those who follow the equity model proposed by Adams (1965); (b) benevolents – those who sense equity only when inputs exceed outcomes; and (c) entitleds – those who sense equity only when outcomes exceed inputs.

Linking OCB to equity theory, Organ (1988) suggested that employees will be unable or unwilling to reduce inputs that are part of the employment contract. Employees may respond by reducing extra-role behaviors such as OCB, when feelings of inequity arise (inputs exceed outcomes). Other studies (Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) found that feelings of equity and procedural justice lead to a willingness to engage in OCB.

Social Learning Theory

Bandura (1977) stated, "Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action" (p. 22). Bandura (1969, 1977) identified three distinguishing factors of social learning theory (SLT). They were: (a) role of vicarious processes (i.e., modeling); (b) effects of covert cognitive processes, and (c) effects of self-control processes.

Vicarious learning involves observing a model of the desired behavior and forming an ideal about how response components must be combined and sequenced to produce a new behavior (Manz & Sims, 1981). Mahoney (1977) stated that the same physical environment can take on different meanings for individuals in the environment. Each person responds to the environment and the *cognitive* representation of the environment. Hence, SLT considers behavioral and cognitive processes in the environment. Several SLT researchers (e.g. Bandura 1968, Kanfer & Karoly, 1972) revealed that any given action has an external environment consequence and an internal self-evaluative consequence. Individuals modify

their behavior when self-created standards are not met. Self-evaluative reactions form the base for *self-control processes* Davis & Luthans, 1980).

SLT has served as the theoretical foundation for the technique of behavior modeling that is widely used in training programs. Bandura (1977) identified four component processes of observational learning. They were: (a) attention: modeled events and observer characteristics; (2) retention: symbolic coding, cognitive organization, symbolic rehearsal, and motor rehearsal; (3) motor reproduction: physical capabilities, self-observation of reproduction, and accuracy of feedback, and (4) motivation: external, and vicarious and self reinforcement.

Manz and Sims (1981) identified several factors of the model's behavior that could influence the probability that the observer will imitate the model's behavior. First, modeling-based training programs would be more effective if the models presented are of high status and competent. Another factor affecting the probability is whether or not the model meets with success or failure. This could strengthen the self-efficacy perception of the observer. A third factor; task performance characteristics such as offering detailed steps, exhibiting degree of mastery, overcoming threatening tasks, and being creative; also could influence performance of modeled behavior. In addition, perceived similarity of the observer to the model (Goldstein & Sorcher, 1974) has influenced imitation in some circumstances.

Social Information Processing Theory

Social information processing theory (SIP) is based on the assumption that people form work attitudes and behaviors as a result of information available in the social environment as opposed to individual predilections (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Proponents of SIP stress that individuals are adaptive organisms who change their behaviors, beliefs, and

attitudes based on the social context and situation. Hence, individual behaviors could be best understood by studying the environment in which the behavior occurs. Co-workers and supervisors are also part of the environment in which employees' behaviors occur. As a result; advice, opinions, and information shared by co-workers and supervisors could alter employee attitudes and behaviors.

Testing SLT and SIP empirically, Bommer, Miles, and Grover (2003) hypothesized that the level of OCB exhibited by an individual within a group will be related positively to the average OCB displayed by co-workers. They hypothesized that the individual employee's OCB towards co-workers will be moderated by the consistency of OCB received. The authors collected data from 626 employees across six plants of an American textile manufacturing company. Results indicated that the more an employee's co-workers engaged in OCB, the more OCB the employee put forth. The consistency of OCB exhibited by the group members moderated an employee's OCB level.

Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) studied negative consequences of SLT and SIP. Their goal was to examine how individuals' antisocial behaviors at work were shaped by antisocial behaviors of their co-workers. Data were collected from 187 employees from 35 groups in 20 organizations. Respondents represented a variety of occupations including real estate agents, accountants, sales personnel, business consultants and paralegals. Findings showed a positive relationship between levels of antisocial behavior exhibited by an individual and that exhibited by his or her co-workers.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory uses a transactional framework for leadership where supervisors treat individual subordinates differently (Duchon, Green, &

Taber, 1986). The quality of exchanges ranges from low to high. Lower-quality exchanges are typified by the exercise of formal organizational authority (Graen & Cashman, 1975). In contrast, higher-quality exchanges are characterized by friendly working relationships illustrated by mutual trust and support (Liden & Graen, 1980), interpersonal attraction (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), and loyalty and bidirectional influence (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Deluga (1994) hypothesized that the quality of subordinate assessed LMX relationships will be related positively to subordinate OCB dimensions of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Study participants included 123 employed continuing education students attending evening classes at a college located in the northeastern U.S. A survey instrument was used to assess subordinate perceptions of supervisor trust building behavior and quality of LMX. Supervisors (n = 86) of the continuing education students were asked to complete several instruments that measured the subordinate's OCB, in-role behavior, and the quality of LMX. Findings showed that the quality of LMX explained variance in courtesy, conscientiousness, altruism and sportsmanship dimensions of OCB significantly beyond that accounted for by in-role performance.

Traditional and Super Leadership

Schnake, Dumler, and Cochran (1993) studied the relationship between five dimensions of OCB and two sets of predictor variables, traditional and super leadership. Traditional leaders emphasize the control of supervisors over employees. Super leaders, on the other hand, encourage self-leadership behaviors including self-observation and evaluation, self-goal-setting, self-reinforcement, self-reward and punishment, rehearsal,

cueing, and self-expectation. The sample included 176 semi-skilled employees of a manufacturing firm located in the southwest U.S. Contrary to expectations, findings showed that super leadership did not contribute incremental explained variance on any OCB dimension beyond the effects of traditional leadership.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transformational leadership factors are charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized attention (Bass, 1985; Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Burns, 1978). Followers of transformational leaders place a great deal of trust on values represented by the leader. Transformational leaders also attempt to pay attention to every subordinate by understanding the subordinate's developmental needs and concerns. Such leaders do not stop at meeting the subordinate's current needs; they also help stimulate those needs to help the subordinate develop further. Another distinguishing character of transformational leaders is that they help subordinates think about old problems in new ways. Over time, subordinates of transformational leaders develop skills to question their own ideas and values and foresee and solve future problems that even the leader may not have anticipated. In contrast, the transactional leader rewards subordinates who meet agreed-upon performance standards. Such leaders emphasize clarification of goals, assignments, and work standards. They practice "management-by-exception" and avoid corrective action as along as predetermined standards are met (Burns, 1978).

Few past studies have studied the effect of transformational leadership on the exhibition of OCB. For instance, Felfe and Schyns (2004) hypothesized that the perceived similarity between supervisors and their managers with respect to transformational leadership was "positively related to positive outcomes, and negatively related to negative outcomes."

The sample consisted of 213 administrative officers employed in two public organizations (finance administration and city council administration). These employees were responsible for leading subordinates, while simultaneously being led by higher level managers. Contrary to hypothesis, the authors concluded that supervisors who experienced dissimilarity from their managers showed higher OCB. The authors explained this finding as supervisors rating themselves to be better role models for their subordinates when they compared themselves to their managers. Hence, supervisors exhibit more OCB to substitute for the lack of OCB by their managers.

In another study, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) measured the effects of transformational leadership and substitutes for leadership on 11 criterion variables; general satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust, role clarity, role conflict, and the five OCB dimensions; altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and courtesy. They measured transformational leadership using the six-dimension model developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). These dimensions include articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation. Questionnaires used to gather information on transformation leadership and other measures were completed by 1,539 employees and 1,200 of their managers representing a variety of industries. Results showed that transformational leadership had unique effects on all measured criterion variables. For instance, individualized support was found to be related positively to employee's satisfaction, trust in their leaders, role clarity, in-role performance, altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue; and negatively related to employee's perceptions of role conflict.

MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001) examined the impact of transformational and transactional leader behaviors on sales performance and OCB of salespeople. The authors stated there was little research related to supplementing effects of transformational leadership behavior on extra-role behavior even though transformational leaders are believed to cause followers to perform "beyond expectations." They collected data from 477 sales agents who worked for a large insurance company. It was found that transformational leadership influences salespeople to perform "above and beyond the call of duty," and transformational leader behaviors had stronger direct and indirect relationships with sales performance and organizational citizenship behavior than transactional leader behaviors.

An extensive literature review revealed only one study related to transformational leadership in the hospitality industry. Tracey and Hinkin (1994) examined effects of transformational leadership on several outcome variables including follower's perceptions of mission clarity, role clarity, effective and open communication, and satisfaction with the leader. The principal partners of a hotel management firm and 45 corporate staff members who worked in the same offices as the partners were asked to rate the effectiveness of transformational leadership behavior of each partner. Overall findings showed that top executives who exhibit transformational leadership behavior were viewed as the most effective. These leaders demonstrated a clear sense of direction without losing sight of their followers' needs. They displayed strong values and ethics and set high performance standards. The authors concluded that in today's dynamic and complex environment, a transformational leader needs to possess the wisdom to guide the organization by fostering an environment of growth and development.

Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Past empirical research has focused on four major categories of antecedents including employee characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors. Leadership behaviors were discussed in the previous section. The meta-analysis of Podsakoff et al. (2000) revealed that employee characteristics such as satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceptions of fairness were related significantly to exhibition of OCB. Employee characteristics also have been the most researched antecedents.

Task characteristics (task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically-satisfying tasks) were related significantly to exhibition of OCB (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff et al. 1996). Task routinization was related negatively, while task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were related positively to exhibition of OCB. Perceived organizational support was the only organizational characteristic that was related significantly to the altruism dimension of OCB.

Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Research on consequences of OCB has focused on two key issues, namely: (a) effects of OCB on managerial evaluations of performance and judgments such as pay raises and promotions, and (b) effects of OCB on organizational performance and success (Podsakoff et al. 2000). In a meta-analysis, the authors found that OCB uniquely accounted for 42.9% of variance in performance evaluations. With respect to individual OCB dimensions, all dimensions with the exception of courtesy significantly impacted performance evaluations. Allen and Rush (1998) pointed out that an associated benefit of employee performance of

OCB was enhancing a managers' liking for a subordinate. They concluded that both in-role performance and OCB were related significantly to reward recommendations made by managers.

Theoretically, OCB can contribute to organizational success by freeing up management resources so they may be used for more productive purposes; reducing employee turnover, optimizing organizational performance, and reducing the need to devote resources to routine functions (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Karambayya's study (as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000) was the first researcher to test the relationship between OCB and organizational performance. She found in her study involving employees from 12 different organizations that employees in high-performing work units exhibited more OCB than employees in low-performing work units.

Castro, Armario, and Ruiz (2004) tested their model that related OCB to outcomes such as customer loyalty and company profitability with employees in Spain's banking industry. The authors concluded that the relationship between OCB and customer loyalty was significant, but the relationship between OCB and company profitability was not.

Several other researchers (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997) have tested the relationship of performance to OCB in various organizational settings including fast-food restaurants, paper mills, and insurance companies. A meta-analysis of previous studies (Podsakoff et al., 2000) found that overall, OCB is related to performance. There was stronger evidence for some dimensions of OCB such as altruism being related significantly to performance than for other dimensions such as sportsmanship and civic virtue.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Hospitality

Fewer than 10 articles studying OCB in the context of the hospitality industry have been published. This is in spite of the fact that OCB has been related to outcomes such as improved customer perceptions of service quality and effective service delivery (Bienstock, DeMoranville, & Smith, 2003; Yoon & Suh, 2003).

In a study involving travel agents and customers representing the three largest metropolitan cities in Korea, Yoon and Suh (2003) examined the relationships of travel agency employees' OCB with job satisfaction, trust in manager, and customer's perceived service quality. Results showed that contact employees' job satisfaction and trust in manager were related significantly to OCB and that their active engagement in OCB had a positive relationship with customers' perceptions of service quality. In another study involving the travel and resort industry, Lester and Brower (2003) investigated the influence of subordinates' perceptions of their leaders' trust in them on OCB. Results demonstrated a positive relationship between felt trustworthiness and OCB.

Most past studies focusing on OCB in the hospitality industry have been done in the restaurant segment. For instance, Stamper and Van Dyne (2003) collected data from 257 employees and their managers in six restaurants (two large-chain restaurants, one large-destination resort, and three small family-owned restaurants) to determine if there were differences between part- and full-time employees with respect to exhibition of OCB. Results showed that part-time employees demonstrated less helping behavior (altruism) than their full-time counterparts. The authors also found that employees exhibited more helping behavior when the restaurant culture was less bureaucratic. Management style and culture at

local- and family-owned restaurants were usually more personal and less bureaucratic than at large-chain restaurants.

In a longitudinal study involving restaurant managers, employees, and customers; Koys (2001) hypothesized that employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and employee turnover influence profitability and customer satisfaction. Results showed that unit-level employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover during the first year predicted the second year's unit-level profitability. However, only OCB had a significant beta weight.

Turnover and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Employee turnover was highest in the leisure and hospitality industry (46.4%) for the 12 months ending August 2004 (Employment Policy Foundation, 2004). During the same period, the private-sector average was 25.1%. Focusing on the university context, most college and university foodservice operators depend on student employees to supplement permanent staff. However, high turnover and absenteeism have been identified as problems associated with employing students (Bartlett, Probber, & Scerbo, 1999).

The possible relationship between turnover and behavioral antecedents has received sparse attention in literature (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998). The authors proposed that strong relationships could be found between discretionary behaviors, such as OCB and turnover because such behaviors are not part of the employee's formal organizational role. They collected data from 205 supervisor-subordinate dyads representing 11 companies in People's Republic of China. Each of 11 companies was contacted to identify workers who had left the organization, 3 and 10 months after the survey. The authors concluded that OCB was a valid

predictor of actual employee turnover. Chen et al. (1998) did not distinguish between OCBO and OCBI when studying the relationship between exhibition of OCB and actual turnover.

Employee Empowerment

Empowerment has been described as a venue to enable employees make decisions (Bowen & Lawler, 1992) and as a personal experience where individuals take responsibility for their own actions (Pastor, 1996). The first definition puts the onus on management, and the second emphasizes the importance of the individual for successful application of empowerment. Whereas, earlier research focused on empowerment as a set of management practices to delegate authority (discretionary empowerment) (Blau & Alba, 1982), recent research has been centered on psychological empowerment, focusing on employee experience (Corsun & Enz, 1999).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined psychological empowerment as inherent motivation evident in four cognitions (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact) reflecting an employee's orientation to his or her work role. Meaning is described as a fit between requirements of the work role and one's beliefs, values and behaviors (Brief & Nord, 1990). Competence is the belief in one's capabilities to perform tasks (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Self-determination reflects autonomy over work behaviors (Bell & Staw, 1989). Finally, impact is the extent to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, and operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989).

Although most researchers distinguished among empowerment types based on level of discretion and autonomy (Kelly, 2003; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997), Young, Corsun, and Shinnar (2004) distinguished among service-recovery empowerment (SRE), customer-service empowerment (CSE), and problem-solving empowerment (PSE). SRE is triggered

only when a service failure occurs. CSE, on the other hand, enables providing service to customers on a proactive rather than a reactive basis. PSE enables employees to solve organizational problems in addition to solving customer problems and providing proactive customer service.

Focusing on service context, Bowen and Lawler (1992) identified three approaches to empowering employees: suggestion involvement, job involvement, and high involvement. With suggestion involvement, employees are encouraged to contribute ideas through formal suggestion methods. However, management typically retains the power to decide whether or not to implement the suggestions. Job involvement entails giving individuals and groups' discretion over various aspects of their jobs and how they organize their work. This discretion could lead to workgroups becoming semi-autonomous or self-managing teams. Finally, high-involvement organizations give even their lowest-level employees a sense of involvement in the total organization's performance.

Kelley (1993) distinguished among three types of discretion: routine, creative, and deviant, available during the service-delivery process. Routine discretion is implemented when employees select an alternative from a list of possible actions to do their jobs. Creative discretion is present when employees develop alternate methods of performing a task. Deviant discretion, which is not preferred by organizations, involves behaviors outside the scope of an employee's formal job description and authority.

Advantages of Empowerment

Benefits from empowering employees can be divided into two categories, improving motivation and productivity of employees and improving customer service (Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998). Numerous studies have shown that empowerment increases job satisfaction and

reduces role stress (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1988). Singh (1996) found that customer-contact employees experienced less role ambiguity when their discretionary powers increased. Empowerment led to quicker resolution of customer problems because employees did not have to waste time referring customer complaints to managers (Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998). The authors stated that empowerment was highly crucial in situations where customer needs are highly variable, in order to enable employees to customize service delivery. Empowerment also increased the scope and opportunity for customization of service products in comparison to manufactured products. As discussed earlier, service recovery is another area where empowerment plays a vital role. If service failures are not rectified quickly and satisfactorily, customers may lose faith in the overall reliability of the service (Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998). Schlessinger and Heskett (1991) identified empowerment as key to service recovery.

Costs of Empowerment

Lashley (1996) stated that the success of empowerment depended on employees' interpretation of empowerment. If employees interpreted the term as added responsibility and increased work load, desired benefits will not be achieved. He stated that empowerment should be a choice as opposed to a requirement. Willingness to accept and exercise discretionary power allowed by management and the desire to satisfy customer needs and wants are two conditions necessary for successful implementation of empowerment (Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004).

Empowerment could cause serious problems if boundaries are not set and organizational learning is not ensured (Bowen & Lawler, 1995). For instance, Bowen and Lawler (1992) stated that empowerment can slow down the service-delivery process and

reduce overall productivity when an empowered employee attempts to individualize the service for customers. Also, if boundaries are not set when rectifying service failures, employees could give too much away. Rafiq and Ahmed (1998) stated that increased responsibilities and improved skills required from empowered employees could result in such employees demanding to be compensated better, thus increasing labor costs. Empowered employees also experience increased frustration and role conflict due to added responsibilities (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). The authors came to this conclusion after surveying 743 hotel employees representing 279 hotels in the U.S.

Empowerment and Power Distance

Power distance was one of four dimensions of national culture identified by Hofstede (1980). Power distance is the degree to which a culture accepts inequities between various groups within a culture, such as social classes and organizational hierarchy. Individuals in high-power distance society have allowed inequalities of power and wealth to grow. In contrast, individuals in low-power distance societies deemphasize the differences between a citizen's power and wealth. The U.S. and Britain are identified as low-power distance cultures; while India, Russia, and France are examples of high-power distance cultures (Hofstede, 1980).

Eylon and Au (1999) explored empowerment along the power-distance dimension. MBA students (n = 135) participated in a management simulation. Participants were divided into high-and low-power distance groups based on language and country of origin and then randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions. Findings showed that participants from both high- and low-power distance societies were more satisfied with their jobs in an empowered condition and less satisfied in a disempowered condition. Individuals from high-

power distance cultures performed significantly better in the disempowered situation, with respect to productivity. The empowerment process did not have any impact on performance for individuals from low-power distance societies. Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, and Lawler (2000) made similar conclusions after examining effects of empowerment on job satisfaction in the U.S., India, Mexico, and Poland. They stated that lack of agreement between the practice of empowerment and cultural values may diminish the positive effect of discretion and autonomy on job satisfaction in high-power distance nations where subordinates are accustomed to taking orders from their supervisors

Fusilier and Durlabhji (2001) explored cultural values that Indian mangers applied to their business activities. They conducted unstructured interviews with 20 Indian managers to allow them to explain their values and behaviors in their own words. The researchers also used qualitative methodology to avoid placing a "Western template" on interpretation of responses. The authors concluded that respondents welcomed ideas such as active listening and employee empowerment, in spite of the fact that India has been classified in the past as having a high-power distance culture.

Empirical evidence pertaining to variation in empowerment effects between high-power distance and low-power distance cultures is ambiguous (Hui et al., 2004). The authors conducted three different studies to examine cross-cultural variations in empowerment effects. In the first study, the authors used power distance as a society-level variable, and job autonomy and job satisfaction as individual-level variables. Adults aged between 18 and 42 years (n = 57,561) representing 42 nations were interviewed by professional survey organizations between 1990 and 1993. Results indicated that the higher the power distance, the lower the job satisfaction of employees from that nation. Although the first study made

society-level conclusions, the second study involved individual-level data. The second study involved a cross-section of front-line, up-scale hotel workers from Canada and the People's Republic of China (PRC). The power-distance values of respondents for these two countries vary significantly (Hofstede, 1980). Although society-level data indicated a negative relationship between power distance and job satisfaction, findings from the second study showed a significant positive relationship between these two variables. In the third study, hotel management students from Canada and PRC were asked to play the role of a frontline employee in a scenario experiment. Results were consistent with the first two studies in that power distance moderated significantly the effect of empowerment on job satisfaction.

Customers' cultural backgrounds also could affect success of empowerment. Huang, Huang, and Wu (1996) studied the relationship between national character (Hofstede, 1980) and specific guest responses to unsatisfactory hotel service. According to Clark (1990), national character represents personality characteristics found in particular nation states. Respondents were American and Japanese guests staying in relatively high-priced hotels in Taiwan. They indicated the frequency with which they engaged in various types of complaint behavior when dissatisfied with a purchase. They then were asked to indicate the likelihood of engaging in complaint behavior for 11 scenarios presented to them. Results revealed that American guests were more likely to stop patronizing the hotel and complain to management when compared to Japanese guests. Specifically, American customers preferred to discuss their problems with higher-level management than front-line employees.

Empowerment Literature in Hospitality

Empowerment research in hospitality and tourism is very limited (Erstad, 1997). Managerial interest in employee empowerment in the hospitality industry has been associated

with gaining competitive advantage through improvements in service quality (Hubrecht & Teare, 1993). Fulford and Enz (1995) suggested that different subject groups in the service industry should be studied to learn more about the concept and practice of empowerment.

Brymer (1991) stated that the best way to ensure customer satisfaction was to empower front-line employees to handle guests' problems immediately instead of referring them to management. He indicated that to implement employee empowerment successfully, management has to have a strong commitment for the empowerment philosophy, agree on desired outcomes of the program, and establish goals and target dates. He also stated that managers have to choose between structured empowerment and flexible empowerment. Structured empowerment enables employees to make decisions within specific and detailed limits. Flexible empowerment gives front-line employees more latitude in making decisions that directly affect guest service and satisfaction.

Lashley (1995) established an empowerment framework based on managerial meanings of empowerment. The framework helps identify contexts and circumstances in which specific empowerment strategies could be used. The empowerment types based on managerial meanings are: (1) empowerment through participation (delegating decision-making to employees); (2) empowerment through involvement (empowering employees to provide feedback, share information, and make suggestions); (3) empowerment through commitment (encouraging employees to take on more responsibility to improve their own performance and ultimately benefit the organization); and (4) empowerment through delayering (reducing tiers of management in organizational structures).

Hancer and George (2003) determined the level of empowerment felt by non-supervisory employees on various dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Questionnaires were distributed to 2,000 non-supervisory employees of three full-service restaurant chains in the Midwest. Results showed respondents believed they had the competence, skills, and abilities to do their jobs proficiently. They indicated the job had meaning for them. Furthermore, respondents believed their work was important and they wanted to have more influence in the organization. Corsun and Enz (1999) studied psychological empowerment practices in the club context. Data was collected from 292 employees in 21 private clubs. Results showed that supportive peer and customer relationships accounted for significant increases in employee empowerment perceptions.

Applying employee empowerment to the theme park industry, Hickman and Mayer (2003) discussed the implementation of employee empowerment in the Florida Theme Park (FTP) located in central Florida. FTP managers appointed hourly employees to lead personnel position. Employees in these positions helped run a single operation and were held accountable for keeping other employees in the operation motivated and productive. As another strategy, managers developed service-measurement teams. Members of these teams had to measure specific service issues (e.g., adequacy of signage) that might affect a guest's experience negatively. Strategies used helped FTP attract and retain its workforce.

Empowerment and Employee Turnover

According to the Employment Policy Foundation's (2004) Fact Sheet, voluntary turnover for the 12 months ending August 2004 was 43.9% for the leisure and hospitality sector compared to the national average of 22.5%. According to the same source, turnover costs in the hospitality and leisure sector was $6,495 per employee. Simons and Hinkin (2001) stated, in the lodging context, that despite the disruption and cost of turnover, many managers still viewed employees (especially hourly employees) as replaceable commodities.

The authors collected data from employees representing 105 hotels and found that for front-desk associates, the cost of individual turnover was approximately 30% of annual salary. Other consequences of turnover, according to the same study, included loss of productivity and reduced hotel profits.

Management Strategies and Turnover

Arthur (1994) distinguished between two management strategies, one emphasizing control and the other emphasizing commitment. The control strategy is an attempt to reduce labor costs or improve efficiency by enforcing employee compliance with specified rules and procedures. In contrast, the commitment strategy emphasizes employee involvement in managerial decision making and training in group problem solving. Testing the effects of the two management strategies on turnover and productivity in the manufacturing context, the author concluded that the strategy emphasizing commitment was associated significantly with increased employee efficiency, lower scrap rates, and lower turnover. Shenberger (1995) suggested that a "skill-based" pay system could reduce employee turnover. Such a system should empower employees with a broad set of skills and capabilities that enrich their experiences of work. Some benefits of a skill-based pay system could include: (1) greater job satisfaction, (2) people willing to take on and perform a broader range of tasks, and (3) lower absence and turnover.

Empowerment and Turnover in Hospitality

Few articles were found that studied the relationship between empowerment and turnover in hospitality. Hogan (1992) interviewed human resources managers of several lodging properties; The Opryland Hotel, La Quinta Motor Inns, Interstate Hotels, Sterchi Hotels, and Forte Hotels; to understand the relationship between different management styles

and employee turnover. He stated that the notion of empowering employees was identified by every manager as a successful retention tool.

Sparrowe (1994) gathered data from 182 employees representing 33 hospitality organizations to test whether or not empowerment was associated with positive employee outcomes. Results showed that investments in efforts to foster psychological empowerment increased employee satisfaction and reduced intent to turnover. After interviewing hotel managers and hospitality consultants, Antolik (1993) stated that hoteliers attempted to minimize turnover via empowerment. The author stressed the importance of ensuring employees clearly understood their job functions by implementing a systematic job evaluation program that provided feedback.

In the restaurant segment within the hospitality industry, TGI Friday's human resources practices were found to reduce employee turnover and enhance business growth (Ingram & Jones, 1998). The quality service manager of each facility identified and empowered key senior shift leaders to train, create shift schedules, and organize social events among other duties. This strategy reduced employee turnover.

Milman (2002) studied hourly employee retention in the attraction segment of the hospitality industry. The study involved 172 hourly employees representing 13 small- and medium-sized facilities in Orlando. Findings showed that self-fulfillment and working conditions predicted retention significantly better than monetary rewards. More specifically, employees who had a sense of fulfillment with their jobs exhibited low-preference levels for moving to another employer. Also, those who were given clear job responsibilities and had consistent working hours were more likely to remain with their current employers.

Rationale for the Current Study

Student employees at University Dining Services (UDS) may exhibit OCB because they wish to impress their supervisors. If supervisors form favorable impressions about certain student employees, the result could be a promotion with raise is base salary for such employees. Supervisors also may serve as references during students' job search processes. This could be another motivation for student employees to exhibit OCB.

From anecdotal data, jobs held by students while pursuing their degrees often times serve as a springboard for obtaining full-time positions upon graduation. Hence, work behaviors students form while employed in UDS may extend to jobs after graduation. This makes it essential to study formation of OCB in student employees.

All past studies measured self-ratings or supervisor ratings of OCB. No studies were found that measured an employee-rated OCB for a supervisor. A literature search did not reveal any articles that investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB in hospitality. Studies related to transformational leadership and OCB found in management literature also did not distinguish between OCBO and OCBI. Addressing consequences of OCB, the present study was designed to investigate possible differences in turnover intentions when part-time employees exhibit OCBO as opposed to OCBI and vice versa. The influence of OCBO on turnover and OCBI on turnover were studied separately because the relationship between OCBO and turnover may not be extendable to OCBI and turnover.

Very few studies have tested the relationship between empowerment and turnover intentions empirically in the hospitality industry. No studies were found that tested the impact of empowerment on job satisfaction and turnover intentions in part-time student

employees in the UDS context. In the past, power-distance has been used as a distinguishing characteristic of a country's culture. However, it is not known if power distance perceptions vary from one ethnicity to another within the same country. Because of the increasing representation of ethnic minorities (Lum, 2003; Moore, 2002) and international students (Ginsberg & Ochoa, 2003) in university student population, it is essential to determine the moderating role played by the cultural value of power distance on the effect of empowerment on job satisfaction. Since the academic year 1982-1983, the number of international students has increased by 74% (Institute of International Education, 2003). It is also not known if perceptions of power distances will change for students who originally come from high-power distance societies as a result of working in a society with traditionally low-power distance i.e., U.S.

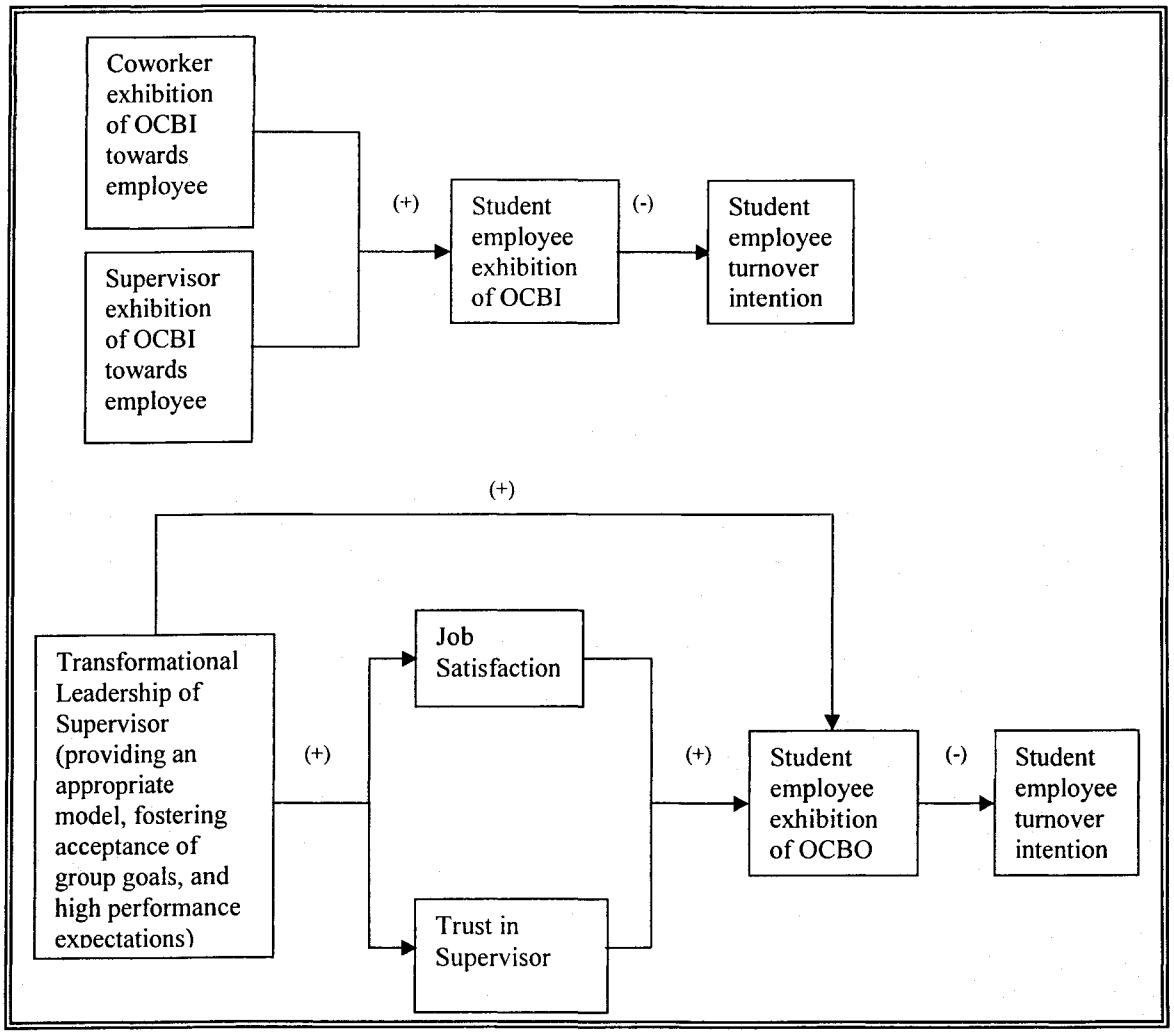
Conceptual Frameworks and Research Propositions

Following is a discussion of the two conceptual frameworks used in this study. Research propositions guiding this study also are stated.

Conceptual Frameworks

This study proposes two conceptual frameworks (Figures 1 & 2) to understand exhibition of OCBI and OCBO, empowerment perceptions, and turnover intentions of students employed in UDS. The first part of the first conceptual framework (Figure 1) tests the influence that managers and co-workers have on the exhibition of OCBI in student employees. The second part of the first conceptual framework (Figure 1) investigates the influence of selected transformational leadership behaviors of managers on the exhibition of OCBO by student employees. The relationship between OCBI, OCBO, and student employee intent to turnover also is incorporated in the first framework.

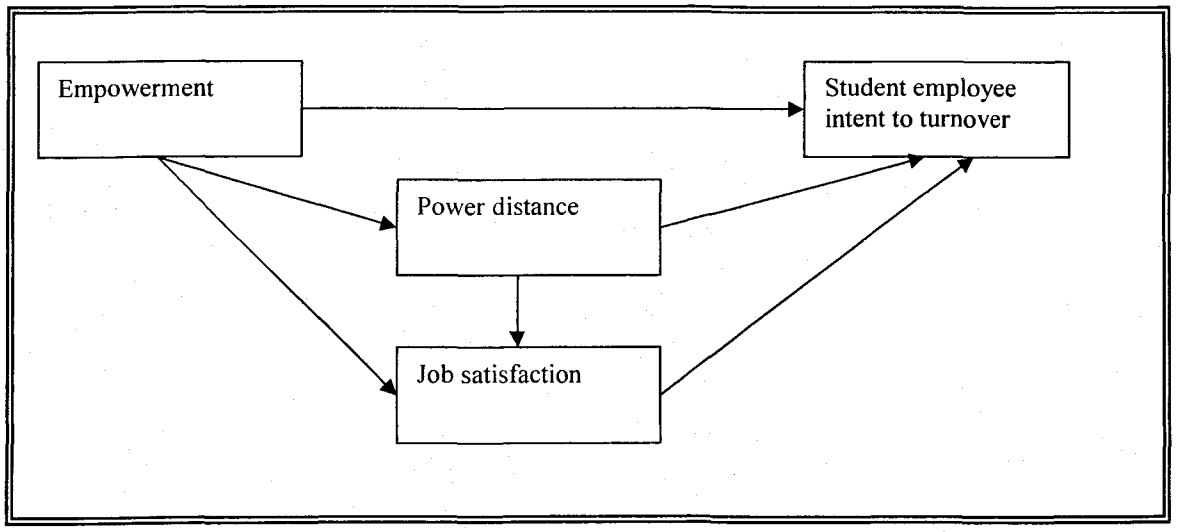
Figure 1. Conceptual framework showing influence of supervisor and co-worker behaviors, and transformational leadership on the exhibition of OCB by student employees



Note: OCBI = Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Individual, OCBO = Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Organization

The second research framework (Figure 2) incorporates the influence of empowerment perceptions of student employees on intent to turnover. The moderating effect that job satisfaction has on the relationship between empowerment perceptions and turnover intentions are tested. In addition, the moderating role of power distance perceptions between empowerment perceptions and job satisfaction is incorporated into the framework.

Figure 2. Conceptual framework showing the influence of employee empowerment perceptions on student employee intent to turnover mediated by power distance and job satisfaction



Research Propositions

The purposes of this research were to investigate the following propositions:

1. Based on social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, a positive relationship exists between student employees' perceptions of manager's OCBI towards students and student employees' perceptions of self-exhibition of OCBI towards managers.

2. Based on social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, a positive relationship exists between student employees' perceptions of co-workers' OCBI towards students and student employees' perceptions of self-exhibition of OCBI towards co-workers.

3. Based on social learning theory, a positive relationship exists between student employees' perceptions of manager's exhibition of transformational leadership behaviors (providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, and high performance expectations) and student employees' perceptions of self-exhibition of OCBO.

4. A negative relationship exists between exhibition of OCBI and intent to turnover for student employees.

5. A negative relationship exists between exhibition of OCBO and intent to turnover for student employees.

6. A negative relationship exists between student employees' perceptions of discretionary empowerment and intent to turnover.

7. Power distance mediates the relationship between student employees' perceptions of discretionary empowerment and job satisfaction.

Summary

This chapter reviewed theories surrounding OCB research and studies related to OCB, employee empowerment, and turnover in the hospitality industry. The OCB framework used two broad categories of OCB based on target of reception. OCBO refers to behaviors that directly benefit the organization and OCBI refers to behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals while indirectly contributing to the organization. This chapter also discussed research frameworks and propositions for the current study.

CHAPTER III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) research in hospitality began in 1999, and all researchers adopted the survey methodology. With respect to studying employee empowerment and its consequences in the hospitality industry, past studies provide anecdotal observations (Antolik, 1993; Hogan, 1992). Some hospitality researchers (Brymer, 1991; Lashley, 1995) developed theoretical models for studying various dimensions and types of empowerment. However, these models have not been tested empirically. Research-based empirical studies measuring OCB and empowerment are scarce in the hospitality industry and non-existent in the context of University Dining Services (UDS).

The research methodology chapter discusses use of human subjects in research, sample selection, instrument design, pilot study, data collection, and data analysis. Details regarding constructs measured and use of web surveys also will be discussed.

Use of Human Subjects in Research

Researchers involved with this study have completed human subjects training and are certified by Iowa State University (ISU). The ISU Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research reviewed and approved the proposal for this study (Appendix C). The committee ruled that the rights and welfare of human subjects were adequately protected, no risks or discomforts to the participants were anticipated, and cover letters to subjects clearly stated the purposes of the research and guaranteed confidentiality of responses.

Sample Selection

This study focuses on perceptions of students employed in the UDS of a four-year, public, land-grant university in the Midwestern U.S. Study sample included students who only can be employed on a part-time basis (20 hours or less a week when classes are in session) in one of 21 dining locations on-campus and 18 years of age or older as of the date the survey was administered. Dining locations included cafes, bakeries, commissary kitchens, convenience stores, food court, vending, and residence hall dining centers. A current list of part-time student hourly employees was obtained from the human resources office of UDS.

Instrument Design

The survey instrument contained five sections (Appendix E). Statements in Part A measured managers and co-workers' OCBI towards student employees and student employees' OCBI towards managers and co-workers. Part B statements measured employee affect towards managers and co-workers, employee trust in supervisor, and employee perceptions of supervisor's transformational leadership behaviors. Part C statements addressed empowerment and power distance. Statements related to respondents' job satisfaction and intent to turnover were in Part D. Part E included 22 demographic questions. These questions included facility of employment, hours of employment per week, interaction time with co-workers and managers, age, ethnic background, major in college, and reasons for employment.

Respondents were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with each statement using a five-point Likert-type scale in Parts A-D. Responses for the Likert-type

scale statements were coded as 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither Disagree/Agree, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly agree.

Following measurement constructs were used in this study.

1. OCBO and OCBI

A modified version of William and Anderson's (1991) questionnaire was used to measure student employees' perceptions of OCBI exhibited by their supervisor and co-workers. Items were modified to fit student employee work behaviors, in order to measure employees' self-ratings of OCBO. Williams and Anderson (1991) distinguished between OCBI and OCBO dimensions through exploratory factor analysis. A five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) was used to measure the constructs.

2. Employee Affect towards Supervisor and Co-workers

A modified version of Wayne and Ferris' (1990) *liking for subordinate* instrument was used. Selected statements were modified to measure *affect towards supervisor* and *affect towards co-workers.* Past studies (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) determined the instrument was reliability.

3. Transformational Leadership

A modified version of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter's (1990) six-dimension, transformational leadership instrument was used to measure leadership behaviors. Three of six dimensions most applicable in the current context were included. These dimensions are: providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, and high performance expectations.

4. Trust in Supervisor

The trust in leader instrument (Podsakoff et al., 1990) that measures trust and loyalty of the subordinate for the supervisor was used. The Cronbach alpha for this scale ranges from 0.71 (Wong, Ngo, & Wong, 2003) to 0.90 (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Hence, a modified form of this instrument was used to measure student employee's trust in supervisor.

5. Job Satisfaction

Three items from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) scale were used to measure overall job satisfaction. The reliability of this scale has been established by several studies (Ang, Van Dyne, & Begley, 2003; Feather & Rauter, 2004; Lester & Brower, 2003).

6. Job Autonomy

Empowerment was measured by Spreitzer's (1995) self-determination sub-scale. Hui, Au, & Fock (2004) successfully used this three-item scale while studying the mediating role of power distance on the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction.

7. Power Distance

The five-item scale developed by Brockner et al. (2001) was used to measure power distance. The reliability of this scale was established by Hui et al. (2004).

8. Intent to Turnover

Items for this scale were taken from several studies (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Camman, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998). Items measured employee's likelihood of looking for alternate jobs within and outside foodservice and intent to leave the organization.

Pilot Study

Part-time students (n = 10) employed in the Food and Nutrition, and Patient Services departments at a university hospital in Midwest U.S. were invited to participate in the pilot study. A paper-version of the questionnaire was mailed to students along with a cover letter explaining the pilot study. The web version of the questionnaire was pre-tested using students from one class in the Hotel, Restaurant, Institution Management program at a Midwestern state university. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire and provide comments regarding content, clarity of directions, and format. Appropriate recommendations from participants were incorporated into the final version of the questionnaire.

Data Collection

An interview was conducted with senior-level UDS managers to determine the need for and appropriateness of questionnaire items. Managers were asked to identify extra-role behaviors because OCB research has been criticized for failing to distinguish between in-role and extra-role behaviors, such as OCB. Thus, any in-role behaviors were excluded from the questionnaire. Following recommendations of senior managers in UDS, a web survey was used for data collection. Recruitment flyers were posted in all 21 dining locations (Appendix F). Dillman (2000) identified several advantages of using web surveys including low costs (no printing, postage, and data entry costs), quicker completion time of project, and comparable response rates. An email was sent to all eligible employees (n = 849) obtained from payroll data provided by the human resources office of UDS. A reminder email was sent to participants four days after the first email. The body of the email included a cover letter explaining benefits of the study, voluntary participation, and anonymity (Appendix D).

A hyperlink to the survey also was provided. After reading the body of the email, students who chose to participate in the study were taken to the web survey by clicking on the hyperlink. Participants were to click on the submit button upon completion of the survey. Responses were received directly by the researchers. Because responses were not viewed by managers, anonymity was ensured. Responses were linked directly to a MS-Access database, eliminating the need for data entry. Students were given one week from first contact to respond. A total of 285 responses were received, a response rate of 33.6%. In appreciation for participation, two $50 cash prizes were given to participants selected in a random drawing.

Data Analysis

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows Release 13.0 (2004) and LISREL 8.5 were used to analyze data. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to determine discriminant validity of the OCBO and OCBI scales. Convergent validity of all scales was determined by calculating Cronbach's alpha. Nunnally's (1978) recommendations were used as a benchmark. Descriptive statistics calculated included frequencies, means, and standard deviations. Negatively-stated items were reverse-coded prior to data analysis. "Exclude cases listwise" option was used in SPSS for data analysis.

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test propositions 1 and 2. This technique was used to determine if co-worker and supervisor exhibitions of OCBI towards student employees predict exhibition of OCBI by student employees. Gender served as a control variable for its possible effect on OCBI in both propositions 1 & 2 (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Because numerous studies (Organ & Ryan, 1995, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996) have suggested that supervisor-employee relationship plays a significant role in the OCB

process, *affect towards supervisor* and *affect towards co-workers* also served as control variables in propositions 1 & 2 respectively. Amount of time spent with supervisor (co-worker for proposition 2), semesters of employment with supervisor (only for proposition 1), age, applicable reasons for employment, semesters of employment at UDS, hours (per week) worked, ethnic background, education year, and source of tuition served as additional control variables. Thus, gender, affect towards supervisor, semesters of employment at UDS, semesters of employment with supervisor, age, applicable reasons for employment, amount of time spent with supervisor, hours per week worked, ethnic background, education year, source of tuition, and employee ratings of manager's OCBI were independent variables. Employee self-rating of OCBI towards manager was the dependent variable for the first proposition. Gender, age, semesters of employment at UDS, appropriate reasons for employment, affect towards co-workers, amount of time spent with co-workers, hours per week worked, ethnic background, education year, source of tuition, and employee ratings of co-workers' OCBIs were independent variables in testing proposition 2. Employees self-rated OCBI towards co-workers was the dependent variable.

Path analysis was used to determine whether or not three dimensions of transformational leadership, as identified in Podsakoff et al. (1996), have a direct effect on employees' self-rated OCBO scores. The mediating effects of trust in supervisor and employee job satisfaction between transformational leadership and OCBO scores also were tested (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Correlation analysis was used to test relationships between intent to turnover with OCBO and with OCBI. Path analysis also was used to determine whether or not employee perceptions of empowerment were related directly to intent to turnover or if they were mediated by perceptions of power distance and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER IV. RESULTS

This study was designed to examine work behaviors of students employed in University Dining Services (UDS) associated with one public, four-year Midwestern land-grant institution in the U.S. Work behaviors investigated included organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals (OCBI), organizational citizenship behavior towards organization (OCBO), transformational leadership behaviors, empowerment, and intent to turnover. Upon recommendations from senior management of UDS, a web survey was used. Email addresses of the current student employees were obtained from the human resources office of UDS. Emails were sent to 849 students and 285 responses were received, for a response rate of 33.6%.

Table 1. *Demographic characteristics of respondents*

Characteristics	**Number of respondents**	**Percent (%)**
Gender		
Female	166	58.3
Male	113	39.6
No response	6	2.1
Year in College		
Freshman	46	16.1
Sophomore	77	27.0
Junior	65	22.8
Senior	83	29.1
Graduate	1	.4
Other	1	.4
No response	12	4.2
Job Title		
Students w/o supervisory responsibilities	228	80.0
Students w/ supervisory responsibilities	44	15.4
Other	8	2.8
No response	5	1.8

Table 1. *(continued)*

Characteristics	Number of respondents	Percent (%)
First Job		
Yes	17	6.0
No	261	91.5
No response	7	2.5
First Job in Foodservice		
Yes	134	47.0
No	143	50.2
No response	8	2.8
Age		
18-23	276	97.1
> 23	9	2.9
Ethnic Background		
Caucasian	238	83.5
African-American	10	3.5
Hispanic-American	10	3.5
Asian American	7	2.5
American Indian	0	0.0
International	12	4.2
No response	8	2.8
Semesters of employment at UDS		
2 semesters or less	169	59.5
Between 2 and 4 semesters	71	25.1
More than 4 semesters	45	15.4
Semesters of employment with supervisor		
2 semesters or less	196	68.9
Between 2 and 4 semesters	71	25.0
More than 4 semesters	18	6.1
Hours of employment at week at UDS		
< 5	6	2.0
5 - 10	58	20.4
11 - 15	161	56.5
16 – 20	60	21.1
Interaction time with co-workers		
< 25%	50	17.5
25% - 50%	76	26.7
51% - 75%	76	26.7
76% - 100%	75	26.3
No response	8	2.8

Table 1. *(continued)*

Characteristics	Number of respondents	Percent (%)
Interaction time with managers		
< 25%	162	56.8
25% - 50%	67	23.5
51% - 75%	30	10.5
76% - 100%	16	5.6
No response	10	3.6

Demographic Characteristics and Descriptive Statistics

Demographic characteristics of respondents are in Table 1. Majority of the respondents (58.3%) were female, and 97.1% were 23 years of age or younger. Almost half of respondents (47%) stated that the job at UDS was their first job in the foodservice sector. Majors of respondents were fairly evenly distributed. Because majority of respondents (83.5%) were Caucasians, "ethnic background" was coded as "1" for Caucasians and "0" for all other categories.

Of 21 dining locations on-campus, one location employed 28.1% of respondents. With respect to type of facility (residential dining centers, restaurants, C-stores etc.), majority of respondents (52.6%) worked for various residential dining centers on-campus. Respondents also stated that, on average, they were responsible for 66.3% of their college expenses. Financial sources to pay for college expenses included job(s), student loans, scholarships and grants, and work study through the financial aid office.

Table 2. *Reasons for employment at UDS and intent to turnover*

Reasons	Number of respondents	Percent (%)
Reasons for employment at UDS*		
Allows for a flexible schedule	246	86.3
Lack of transportation to work off-campus	204	71.6
Place of residence is close to work	176	61.8
Hourly rate of pay	161	56.5
Employment related to major/degree	20	7.0
Can only work on-campus	19	6.7
Reasons for considering quitting UDS*		
Don't like to work in foodservice	30	10.5
Can't keep up with school work-load	18	6.3
Found another job related to major	19	6.7
Don't like work hours	16	5.6
Don't get along with supervisor	5	1.8
Don't get along with co-workers	1	.4

*Students were allowed to check all applicable reasons

Reasons for employment at UDS are in Table 2. The top three reasons for employment with UDS were "allows for a flexible schedule," "place of residence is close to work," and "hourly rate of pay." The average hourly pay rate was $10.20. Hourly rate of pay ranged from $6.75 to $13.86. More than quarter (26.5%, n = 72) of respondents stated that they were considering quitting. Reasons for student employees considering leaving UDS are in Table 2. The top reason for considering quitting was that students disliked being employed in foodservice.

Descriptive statistics of all measured constructs appear in Table 3. Cronbach's alpha was 0.62 for the student employee exhibition of OCBO scale and 0.61 for the intent to turnover scale. These reliability estimates are below the recommended level of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) stated that a Cronbach's alpha of 0.60 was acceptable when most items in these two scales were new and formulated specifically for the research context. Because several items in the OCBO and intent to

turnover scale were formulated specifically for the UDS context and they are above 0.60, these two constructs were used in data analysis. The other scale reliabilities were above the recommended 0.70 level.

Scores for each Likert-scale item in Parts A through D ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). None of the 13 measures had mean values in the "strongly agree" range (≥ 4.50) or "strongly disagree" range (< 1.50). Item mean values for nearly one-half (6) of measures (co-workers OCBI towards student employees, student employee OCBI towards co-workers, affect towards manager, affect towards co-workers, trust in supervisor, and job satisfaction) were in the "agree" range (3.50-4.49). Items in five measures; manager OCBI towards student employee, student employee OCBI towards manager, student employee OCBO, transformational leadership, and power distance; had mean scores ranging from "neither agree nor disagree" to "agree" (2.50-4.49). However, power-distance scores were heavily influenced by Caucasians (83.5% of respondents). Very little representation was received from ethnic minorities and international students (16.5%).

Item mean scores for empowerment perceptions were in the "neither agree nor disagree" range (2.50-3.49), and for "intent to turnover" in the "disagree" (1.50-2.49) to "neither agree nor disagree" range. Standard deviations for the manager OCBI towards student employee (1.07 to 1.16) and student employee OCBI towards manager (1.00 to 1.12) constructs were higher than those of other constructs measured. The higher standard deviations represent high-level of variations in student employees' responses.

Table 3. *Item-specific descriptive statistics and reliability*

Item	Mean	SD	Reliability
Manager OCBI towards student employee			
My manager helps me catch-up I have been absent	3.42	1.12	
My manager helps me when my work-load is heavy	3.82	1.07	
My manager assists me with my work (when not asked)	3.43	1.14	0.88
My manager takes time to listen to my work problems and worries	3.67	1.13	
My manager takes a personal interest in me	3.60	1.16	
My manager passes along new information to me	3.81	1.07	
Student employee OCBI towards manager			
I help my manager catch-up when he/she has been absent	3.36	1.12	
I help my manager when his/her work-load is heavy	3.90	1.00	0.87
I assist my manager with his/her work (when not asked)	3.46	1.10	
I take time to listen to my manager's work problems and worries	3.53	1.11	
I take a personal interest in my manager	3.47	1.11	
I pass along new information to my manager	3.81	1.03	
Co-workers OCBI towards student employee			
My co-workers help me catch-up I have been absent	3.65	0.99	
My co-workers help me when my work-load is heavy	4.00	0.87	
My co-workers assist me with my work (when not asked)	3.54	1.00	0.82
My co-workers take time to listen to my work problems and worries	3.82	0.88	
My co-workers take a personal interest in me	3.90	0.87	
My co-workers pass along new information to me	3.86	0.89	
Student employee OCBI towards co-workers			
I help my co-workers catch-up when they have been absent	3.87	1.00	
I help my co-workers when their work-load is heavy	4.30	0.72	
I assist my co-workers with their work (when not asked)	3.90	0.89	
I take time to listen to my co-workers' work problems and worries	3.92	0.86	0.84
I take a personal interest in my co-workers	3.93	0.88	
I pass along new information to my co-workers	3.94	0.90	
Student employee OCBO			
My attendance at work is above average	4.40	0.88	
If I am unable to come to work due to an emergency or last minute sickness, I find a replacement	3.52	1.16	
I adhere to informal rules designed to maintain order	3.82	0.94	0.62
When work is slow, I find other tasks to do (example: cleaning, organizing etc.)	3.89	0.89	
I volunteer to work extra hours when I know that extra employees are needed	3.49	1.09	

Table 3. *(continued)*

Item	Mean	SD	Reliability
Affect towards manager			
I like working with my manager	3.96	1.04	
I don't get along with my manager*	4.36	0.92	0.78
I believe my manager will make a good friend	3.50	1.05	
Affect towards co-workers			
I like working with my co-workers	4.32	0.78	
I don't get along with my co-workers *	4.41	0.90	0.74
I believe my co-workers will make good friends	4.13	0.84	
Trust in supervisor			
My manager doesn't ever try to treat me fairly*	4.35	0.90	
I have complete faith in the integrity of my manager	3.91	1.00	0.85
I feel a strong loyalty to my manager	3.60	1.07	
I would support my manager in almost any emergency	3.88	1.00	
Transformational leadership – Providing an appropriate model			
My manager is a good model for me to follow	3.63	1.03	0.93
My manager leads by example	3.57	1.05	
Transformational leadership – Fostering acceptance of group goals			
My manager fosters collaboration among employees	3.54	1.01	0.91
My manager encourages employees to be "team players"	3.69	1.01	
My manager develops team spirit among employees	3.40	1.09	
Transformational leadership – High performance expectations			
My manager expects a lot from us	3.49	0.94	0.88
My manager insists on only the best performance	3.57	0.92	
My manager will not settle for second best	3.37	0.97	
Power distance			
People at lower levels in the organization should carry out the requests of people at higher levels without questions	3.00	1.15	
People at higher levels in organizations have a responsibility to make important decisions for people below them	3.69	0.90	
Once a manager makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.	2.68	1.06	0.74
In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	3.83	0.86	
An organization's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest	3.11	0.95	

Table 3. *(continued)*

Item	Mean	SD	Reliability
Empowerment			
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	3.39	0.89	
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	3.43	0.99	
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	3.32	1.04	0.81
Job satisfaction			
Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job	3.80	1.00	
I am generally satisfied with the nature of work I do in this job	3.71	1.06	0.86
Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my manager	3.94	0.95	
Intent to turnover			
I often think about leaving the organization	2.34	1.21	0.61
It is likely that I will look for another job outside foodservice within the next 6 months	2.84	1.53	

*Denotes reverse-coded items
Responses for items ranged from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree

Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression Results

The purpose of hierarchical regression was to determine whether or not there was a positive relationship between manager's exhibition of OCBI towards student employees and student employee's exhibition of OCBI towards manager, and co-workers exhibition of OCBI towards student employees and student employee's exhibition of OCBI towards co-workers. Two separate hierarchical regressions were conducted to test these relationships. Correlation matrices of independent variables used in the manager and co-worker models are shown in Appendices A and B, respectively. The correlation between "age" and "education year" was .667 in both models. However, both variables were included in the model because the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was below 4, indicating no multi-collinearity issues. Control variables were also somewhat different for the two regressions. Control variables for the first hierarchical regression that tested the influence of manager OCBI towards student employee are shown in Table 4. The second hierarchical regression tested the influence of

co-workers OCBI towards student employee. Affect towards manager was replaced with affect towards co-workers, and interaction time with manager was replaced with interaction time with co-workers. "Semesters of employment with supervisor" was an additional control variable while testing the influence of manager OCBI towards student employee.

Results of the two hierarchical regressions are in Tables 4 (influence of manager OCBI) and 5 (influence of co-workers OCBI). The full model in both regressions includes control variables and main effect. It is interesting to note that affect towards co-workers (Table 6) was a significant control variable but affect towards manager (Table 4) was not. Another interesting finding was that education year was a significant control variable in the co-workers hierarchical regression model but not in the managers hierarchical regression model. "Semesters of employment with supervisor" was a significant predictor of student employee exhibition of OCBI in the manager model.

Results from the full model shown in Table 4 show strong support for the first proposition. Thus, when student employees perceive managers as exhibiting OCBI towards them, student employees exhibit OCBI towards managers. This relationship was in the expected direction ($\beta = 0.712$, $p < 0.05$). In addition, the model R^2 for the full model was 0.572 compared to the model R^2 with only control variables ($R^2 = 0.389$).

Table 4. *Hierarchical regression results for influence of supervisor OCBI*

	β
Step 1: Controls	
Student employee gender	-.101
Student employee age	-.038
Semesters of employment at UDS	-.001
Semesters of employment with supervisor	.109
Reason for employment – Hourly rate of pay	-.015
Reason for employment – Allows for a flexible schedule	.065
Reason for employment – Employment related to major/degree	-.026
Affect towards manager	.498*
Interaction time with manager	.129*
Work hours per week	.091
Ethnic background	.056
Education year	.135
Source of tuition	-.031
Model R^2	.389
Step 2: Main effect added	
Student employee gender	-.059
Student employee age	.006
Semesters of employment at UDS	-.015
Semesters of employment with supervisor	.135*
Reason for employment – Hourly rate of pay	.048
Reason for employment – Allows for a flexible schedule	-.038
Reason for employment – Employment related to major/degree	-.018
Affect towards manager	-.036
Interaction time with manager	.060
Work hours per week	.029
Ethnic background	.034
Education year	.110
Source of tuition	.015
Manager OCBI towards student employee	.712*
Model R^2	.572
Δ in model R^2	.183*

Notes: All β values are standardized.
n = 248; *p < 0.05

Table 5. *Stepwise regression results - Predictors of employee OCBI towards manager*

Model and Variables	R^2	Δ in R^2	Standardized β	Significance*
Model 1	.526	.526		
Manager OCBI towards student empl.			*.725*	*.000*
Model 2	.552	.026		
Manager OCBI towards student empl.			*.711*	*.000*
Semesters employed w/ supervisor			*.162*	*.000*
Model 3	.561	.010		
Manager OCBI towards student empl.			*.716*	*.000*
Semesters employed w/ supervisor			*.130*	*.004*
Education year			*.104*	*.021*

n = 261; * $p < 0.05$

Following hierarchical regression, stepwise regression was conducted using variables from the full model of hierarchical regression. This was done in the interest of parsimony. According to hierarchical regression results shown in Table 4, of 13 independent variables, only two were significant predictors of student exhibition of OCBI towards manager. Hence, model R^2 shown could be inflated. Results of stepwise regression, showing significant predictors of student exhibition of OCBI towards manager, are available in Table 5. In addition to the two significant predictors identified by hierarchical regression, "education year" was identified as a predictor by stepwise regression. The change in model R^2 was however, only 0.10 when "education year" was included in Model 3.

Table 6. *Hierarchical regression results for influence of co-worker OCBI*

Step 1: Controls	β
Student employee gender	-.072
Student employee age	-.126
Semesters of employment at UDS	.042
Reason for employment – Hourly rate of pay	.046
Reason for employment – Allows for a flexible schedule	-.009
Reason for employment – Employment related to major/degree	.004
Affect towards co-workers	.564*
Interaction time with co-workers	.089
Work hours per week	.054
Ethnic background	.037
Education year	.169*
Source of tuition	-.005
Model R^2	.388
Step 2: Main effect added	
Student employee gender	-.023
Student employee age	-.080
Semesters of employment at UDS	.041
Reason for employment – Hourly rate of pay	.018
Reason for employment – Allows for a flexible schedule	.028
Reason for employment – Employment related to major/degree	.037
Affect towards co-workers	.130*
Interaction time with co-workers	-.010
Work hours per week	.007
Ethnic background	.058
Education year	.125*
Source of tuition	.000
Co-workers OCBI towards student employee	.784*
Model R^2	.778
Δ in model R^2	.390*

Notes: All β values are standardized.
n = 245; *p < 0.05

Similar conclusions also can be made regarding the relationship between student employees' perceptions of co-workers OCBI towards them and student employees' OCBI towards their co-workers (Table 6). There was a significant positive relationship between the two variables ($\beta = 0.784$, $p < 0.05$). Respondents worked, on average, with 10 co-workers.

The full model R^2 for the co-workers influence model was 0.778, indicating a 0.390 increase in percent of variance explained compared to the model with only control variables.

As with the manager model, stepwise regression was conducted in the interest of parsimony to identify predictors of student employee exhibition of OCBI towards co-workers. Results are available in Table 7. After "education year" and "ethnic background" were included in the model, model R^2s went up only by .007 and .004, respectively. Standardized βs also are low for these variables compared to other significant predictors. Given results, Model 2 is the best model.

Table 7. *Stepwise regression results - Predictors of employee OCBI towards co-workers*

Model and Variables	**R^2**	**Δ in R^2**	**Standardized β**	**Significance***
Model 1	.750	.750		
Co-worker OCBI towards student empl.			*.866*	*.000*
Model 2	.761	.012		
Co-worker OCBI towards student empl.			*.788*	*.000*
Affect towards co-workers			*.132*	*.001*
Model 3	.768	.007		
Co-worker OCBI towards student empl.			*.785*	*.000*
Affect towards co-workers			*.133*	*.001*
Education year			*.083*	*.008*
Model 4	.772	.004		
Co-worker OCBI towards student empl.			*.787*	*.000*
Affect towards co-workers			*.127*	*.001*
Education year			*.090*	*.004*
Ethnic background			*.063*	*.043*

n = 246; * $p < 0.05$

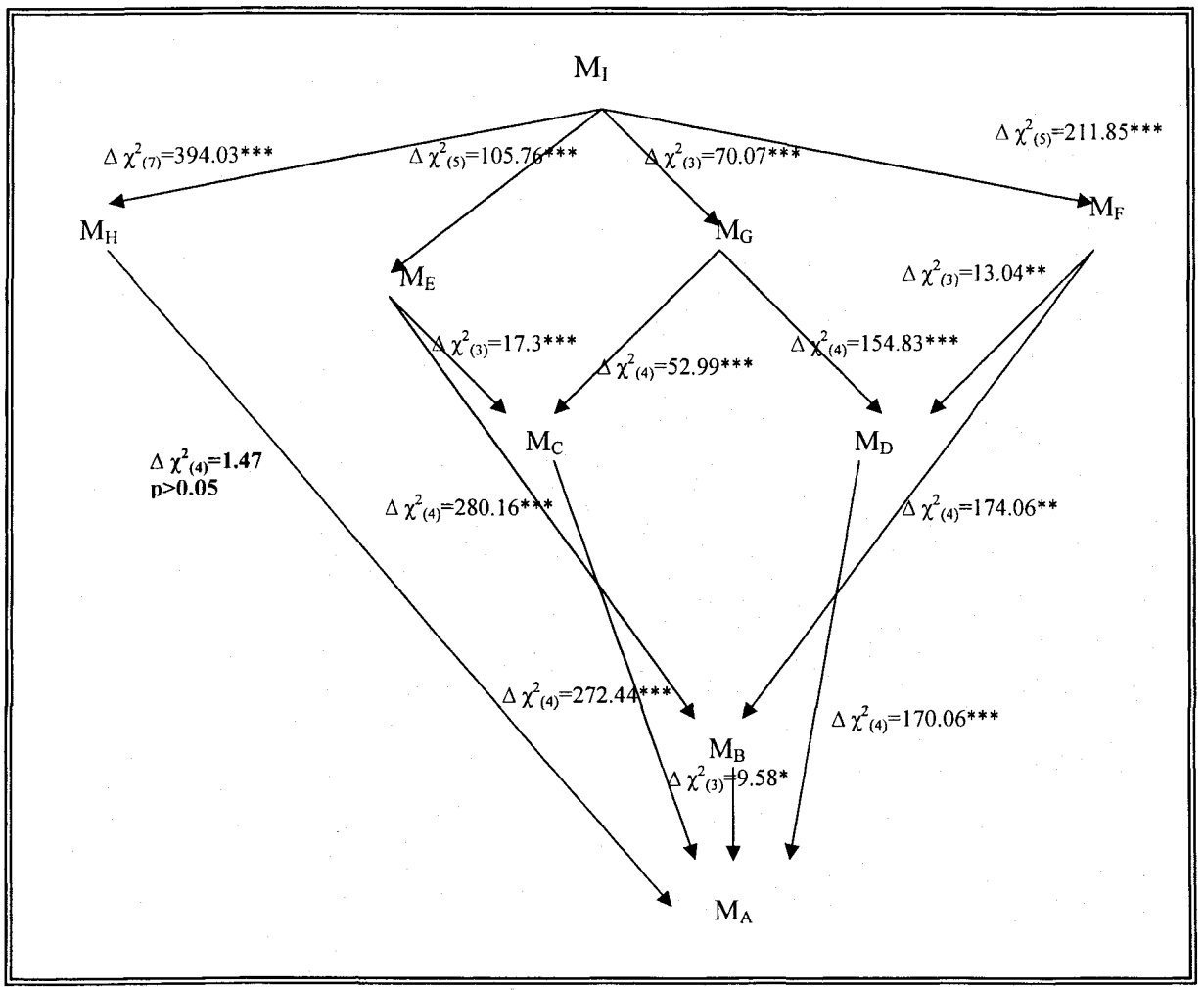
Path Analysis Results – Transformational Leadership and OCBO

An interpretation of various models used to examine the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and OCBO are in Table 8 along with chi-square scores and degrees of freedom (d.f.) of the models. Figure 3 shows results of differences in chi-square values and the significance of difference scores (p-values) while examining the need for various paths. This was done to determine the best model fit. Models described in Table 8 are denoted in Figure 3 with M and a subscript of the model discussed (example: M_A for Model A).

Table 8. *Transformational leadership and OCBO - Model descriptions*

Model	Substantive Interpretation	Chi-square	d.f.
A	Full model (i.e., mediating and direct effects)	---	--
B	Full model w/o direct effects	9.58	3
C	Full model w/o indirect effects through trust in supervisor	272.44	4
D	Full model w/o indirect effects through job satisfaction	170.60	4
E	Full model w/o direct effects and indirect effects through trust in supervisor	289.74	7
F	Full model w/o direct effects and indirect effects through job satisfaction	183.64	7
G	Full model w/o indirect effects	325.43	8
H	Full model w/o direct effects from "providing an appropriate model" and "fostering acceptance of group goals," and indirect effects from "high performance expectations	1.47	4
I	Null model	395.497	11

Figure 3. Alternative path models showing changes in chi-square scores with deletion of various paths



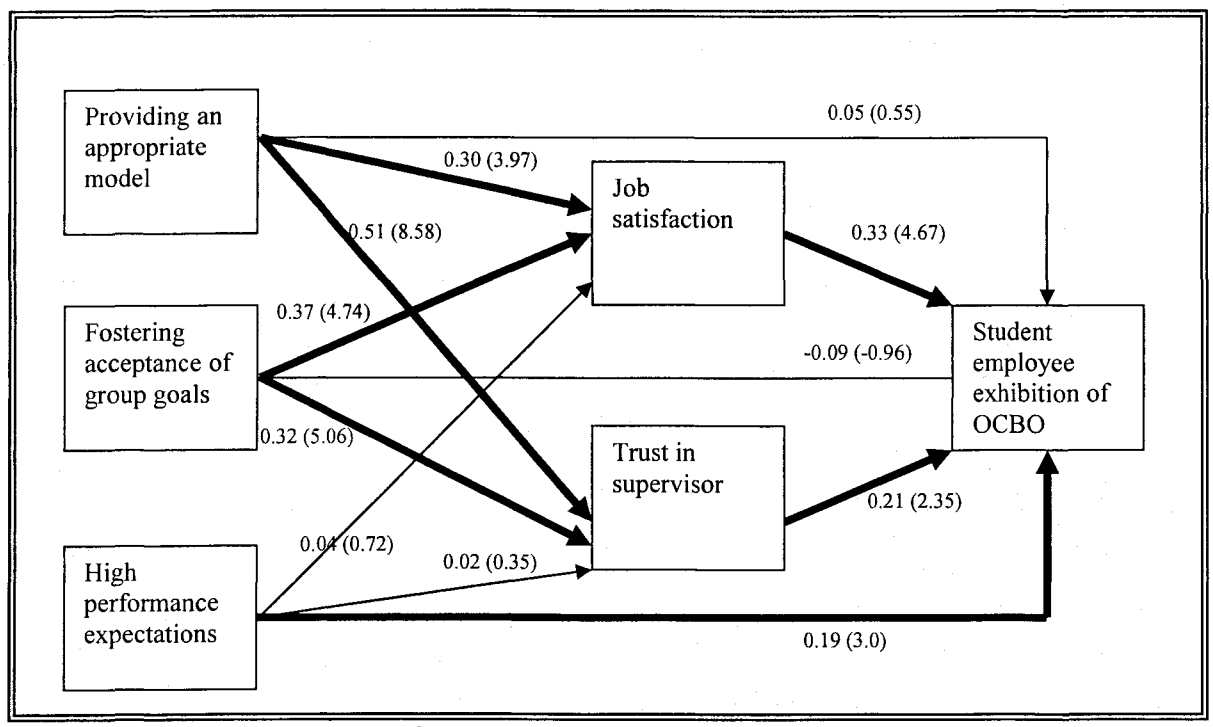
*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

Model A (M_A in Figure 3) includes all direct and indirect effects of the transformational leader behaviors on OCBO. Model B (M_B), is similar to Model A, but without direct effects from the three leader behaviors to OCBO. The chi-square difference between Model A and Model B is a test to determine the need for direct paths from the three leader behaviors to OCBO. The difference score was 9.58, which was significant ($p < 0.05$) at 3 degrees of freedom. Models C (M_C) and D (M_D) examined the need for indirect effects

through trust in supervisor and job satisfaction, respectively. A chi-square difference test established the need for these paths (Figure 3). Similar conclusions can be made for models E, F, and G. An important observation to be made from Figure 3 is that although the chi-square difference tests were significant while testing the need for various paths, the difference score was lowest while trying to establish the need for direct paths going from the three leader behaviors to OCBO ($\Delta \chi^2_{(3)} = 9.58$; $p < 0.05$). All except Model H chi-square difference tests were significant at $p < 0.001$ level.

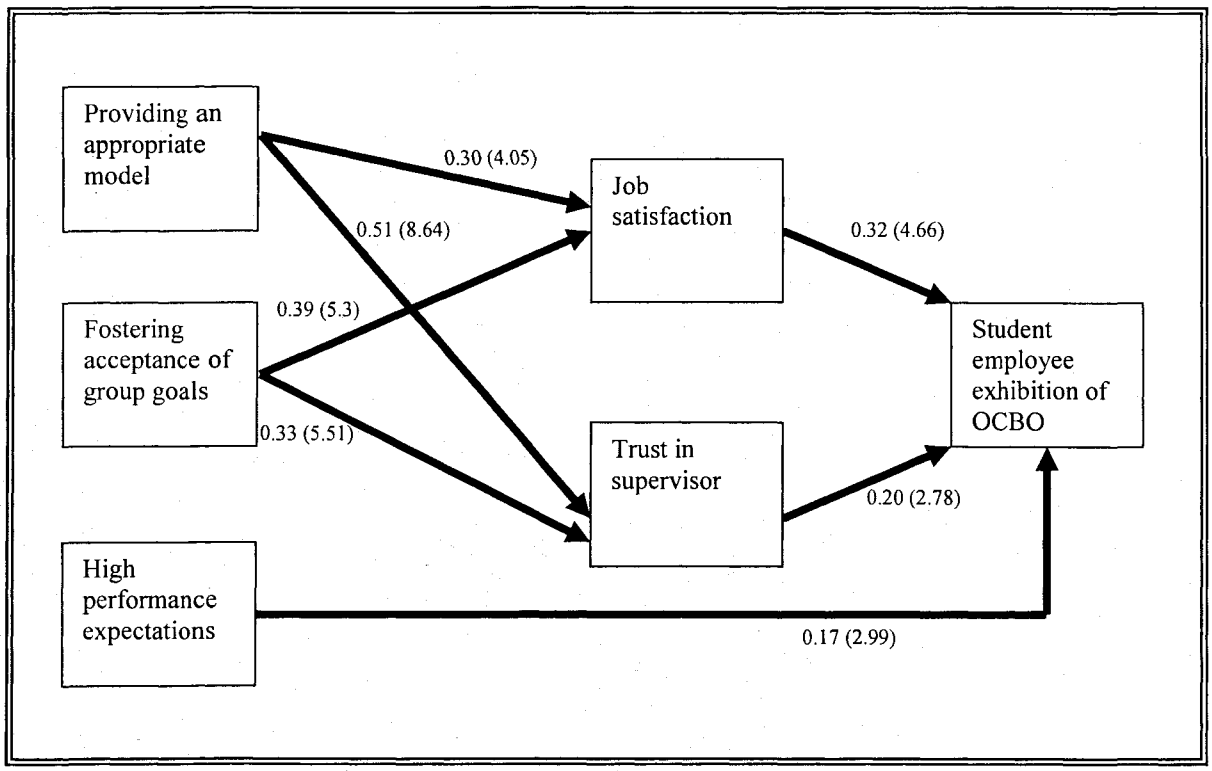
Path coefficients and associated t-values for the fully recursive model (Model A) are shown in Figure 4. Two immediate conclusions that can be seen in the figure are that the direct path from two transformational leader behaviors (providing an appropriate model, and fostering acceptance of group goals) to student employee exhibition of OCBO are not significant. In addition, the indirect path from "high performance expectations" is not significant. Based on these results, the low chi-square difference score while testing for direct paths, and the need for a parsimonious model, Model H (M_H in Figure 3) was tested. Model H (Figure 5) is the full model without direct paths from "providing an appropriate model" and "fostering acceptance of group goals," and indirect effects from "high performance expectations. The chi-square difference score for Model H against the full model was 1.47 with 4 degrees of freedom. This difference is not significant ($p > 0.05$), thus eliminating the need for these paths.

Figure 4. Fully recursive model showing significant paths, standardized beta coefficients, and t-values associated with beta coefficients (in parenthesis)



Note: Correlations among transformational leadership behaviors, and job satisfaction and trust in supervisor have been omitted to ensure clarity. Significant paths have been indicated through bolded arrows.

Figure 5. Path model without indirect path through "high performance expectations," and direct paths through "providing and appropriate model," and "fostering acceptance of group goals," showing significant paths, standardized beta coefficients, and t-values associated with beta coefficients (in parenthesis)



Note: Correlations among transformational leadership behaviors, and job satisfaction and trust in supervisor have been omitted to ensure clarity. Significant paths have been indicated through bolded arrows.

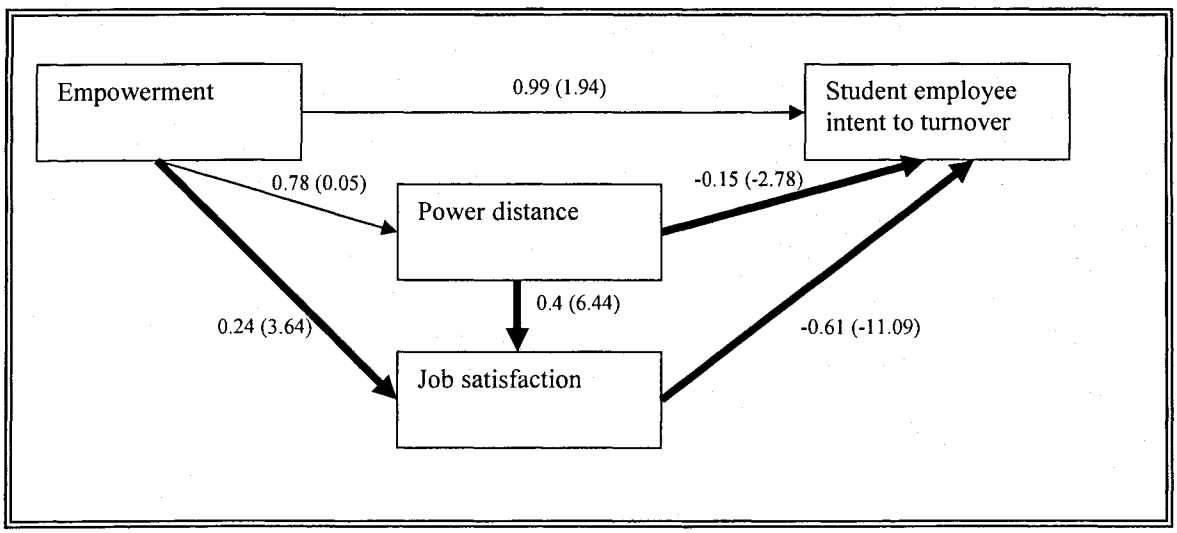
Based on recommendations of Hu and Bentler (1999), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) were used to determine goodness of model fit. The authors recommend a Standardized RMR < 0.08 and a CFI of at least 0.95. These indices were the best for Model H (Standardized RMR = 0.00; CFI = 1.00).

Path Analysis Results – Employee Empowerment and Intent to Turnover

A negative relationship was proposed between empowerment perceptions of student employees and intent to turnover. Path analysis (Figure 6) was used to determine whether or not empowerment impacted student employee intent to turnover directly, or if it was

mediated by perceptions of job satisfaction and power distance. The path analysis results shown in Figure 6 apply only to Caucasian respondents. The initial intention was to determine if power-distance perceptions varied by ethnic group (within the U.S.) and country of origin. Also of interest was the influence of power-distance scores for members of various ethnic groups and countries on the relationship between empowerment and power distance. However, due to 83.5% of respondents being Caucasians, a meaningful comparison of power-distance scores could not be made. Hence, only Caucasian responses were included in the model to prevent any bias arising from respondents of other ethnic groups and nationalities.

Figure 6. Fully recursive model showing significant paths, standardized beta coefficients, and t-values associated with beta coefficients (in parenthesis)



Note: Significant paths have been indicated through bolded arrows.

Path analysis results suggest that empowerment perceptions of student employees do not directly impact their intent to turnover. The direct path was not significant ($p < 0.05$) with a t-value of 1.94. However, the indirect path through job satisfaction was significant as indicated by the bolded arrows in Figure 6.

The mean power-distance score for all respondents was 3.26 and for Caucasian respondents, 3.29. It is notable that power distance did not mediate the relationship between student employee perceptions of empowerment and job satisfaction. Empowerment perceptions had a direct impact on job satisfaction (standardized $\beta = 0.24$; $t = 3.64$). These findings are contradictory to those of Hui, Au, & Fock (2004). Power distance and job satisfaction perceptions also had direct significant impacts on student employee intent to turnover. Job satisfaction (standardized $\beta = -0.61$; $t = -11.09$) had larger impact than power distance. Although, power distance had a direct significant impact (standardized $\beta = -0.15$; $t = -2.78$) on student employee intent to turnover, most of the impact was indirect through job satisfaction (standardized $\beta = 0.4$; $t = 6.44$).

Correlation Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results – OCBO and Intent to Turnover and OCBI and Intent to Turnover

Propositions 4 and 5 were formulated to determine whether the impact of OCBO on student employee intent to turnover would be different from the impact of OCBI on intent to turnover. As a first step, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using LISREL 8.5 to determine if OCBI and OCBO items loaded as intended. CFA was conducted for three factors; student employee OCBI towards managers (SEM), student employee OCBI towards co-workers (SEC), and student employee OCBO (SEOCBO). Items for the SEM, SEC, and SEOCBO measures are available in Table 2. The model fit improved after removing items 3, 4, and 5 from the OCBO scale. Removed scale items included, "I take undeserved work breaks," "I spend time at work studying/reading," and "I complain about insignificant things at work." Hence, Cronbach's alpha reported earlier also was calculated based on items 1, 2, 6, 7, and 8 (Cronbach's alpha = 0.62). Cronbach's alpha with items 3, 4, and 5 included was

0.58. Factor loadings, standard errors, and t-values are available in Table 9. As can be observed, factor loadings for all items in the SEM scale and also except one item (SEC3) are close to the recommended 0.60 level (Kline, 2005). However, 4 of 5 items are below the recommended 0.60 level for the SEOCBO measure. Standardized RMR and CFI for the model were 0.05 and 0.94 respectively. Due to discriminant validity issues, the relationship between OCBO and intent to turnover was not examined.

Table 9. *Factor loadings, standard errors, and t-values of OCBI and OCBO scales*

Item	**Parameter Estimate**	**Standard Error (S.E.)**	**Estimate / S.E.**
SEM1	0.65	0.06	11.50
SEM2	0.63	0.06	10.55
SEM3	0.63	0.06	10.83
SEM4	0.79	0.06	14.31
SEM5	0.75	0.06	13.10
SEM6	0.77	0.06	14.10
SEC1	0.63	0.06	10.68
SEC2	0.60	0.06	10.16
SEC3	0.59	0.06	10.05
SEC4	0.75	0.06	13.33
SEC5	0.75	0.06	13.17
SEC6	0.79	0.05	14.75
SEOCBO1	0.46	0.07	6.75
SEOCBO2	0.42	0.07	6.09
SEOCBO6	0.36	0.07	5.24
SEOCBO7	0.52	0.07	7.69
SEOCBO8	0.63	0.07	9.54

Note: SEM-student employee OCBI towards manager; SEC-student employee OCBI towards co-workers; SEOCBO-student employee OCBO

Cronbach's alpha was calculated combining items from the SEM and SEC scales to determine if the 12 items would provide a good measure of student employee OCBI. The reliability was high (Cronbach's alpha = 0.91). Thus, correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between student employee OCBI and intent to turnover. A significant negative correlation was found between the overall measure of student employee

OCBI and intent to turnover ($r = 0$-$.338$; $p < 0.001$). In an attempt to make comparisons with previous studies, a correlation between the overall measure of OCBI and OCBO was calculated. A significant positive correlation was found between these two measures ($r = 0.586$; $p < 0.001$). This is higher than the correlation of 0.43 and 0.40 found by Williams and Anderson (1991) and Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004), respectively.

Summary

Results of path analyses show that managers and co-workers heavily influence the exhibition of OCBI by student employees. It is also evident that job satisfaction played a more important moderating role than trust in supervisor while examining the relationship between various transformational leadership dimensions and student employee exhibition of OCBO. In addition, a weak, but significant negative relationship was found between student employee intent to turnover, with student employee exhibition of OCBO and OCBI. While studying the relationship between empowerment and turnover, job satisfaction was found to be a significant moderating variable. Another finding was that power distance did not mediate the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction, as with some past studies (Hui, Au, & Fock, 2004).

CHAPTER V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Discussion

One objective of this research was to examine the influence of manager and co-worker behaviors on the exhibition of organization citizenship behavior towards individuals (OCBI) by student employees. Based on social learning theory, the influence transformational leadership behaviors (providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, and high performance expectations) on the exhibition of organizational citizenship behaviors towards the organization (OCBO) by student employees also were examined. Another objective of this research was to determine if OCBO impacted student employee intent to turnover differently than OCBI in university dining services (UDS). A final objective of this study was to determine the impact of empowerment on student employee intent to turnover moderated by power distance and job satisfaction.

This study expands on what has been previously reported in the management and organizational behavior literature. A summary of major findings and associated managerial implications from this study are available in Table 10.

Table 10. *Summary of major findings and associated managerial implications*

Major Findings	**Managerial Implications**
• Managers and co-workers play a vital role in exhibition of OCBI by student employees at UDS • OCBI has a significant negative relationship with student employee intent to turnover	• Encourage managers to serve as an example and initiate exhibition of citizenship behaviors towards student employees • Educate managers on the importance of exhibition of citizenship behaviors • Create a work environment that encourages exhibition of citizenship behaviors

Table 10. *(continued)*

Major Findings	**Managerial Implications**
Perceptions of transformational leader behaviors influence exhibition of OCBO by student employees	Managers should • "do" rather than "tell" • encourage team work • set high standards for student employees
Empowerment has an indirect impact on intent to turnover through job satisfaction	Provide student employees with discretion and autonomy

Other findings from this study include: (1) a high degree of correlation exists between OCBO and OCBI; and (2) power distance does not mediate the relationship between empowerment and intent to turnover. All findings are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

Results of two separate hierarchical regression analyses showed that perceptions of manager and co-workers OCBI towards student employees impact their exhibition of OCBI towards their manager and co-workers, after controlling for employee gender, employee age affect towards co-workers (or manager), interaction time with co-workers (or manager), work hours per week, ethnic background, education year, tenure at job, tenure with supervisor (only in the manager model), source of tuition, and three applicable reasons for employment (allows for a flexible schedule, employment related to degree/major, and hourly rate of pay). These results are similar to the findings of Bommer, Miles, and Grover (2003), where it was found that the mean OCB level for other work group members explained significant variance in individual levels of OCB. However, the Bommer et al. (2003) study proposed hypotheses based on social learning theory as opposed to social exchange theory and norm of reciprocity used in this study. In addition, their study was conducted using work groups in a manufacturing context rather than service environment. Results obtained in this study are

also comparable to those obtained by Deckop, Cirka, and Andersson (2003) where the influence of helping behaviors of co-workers on employee exhibition of OCB was studied. Propositions for their study were based on the social exchange theory; however, an overall measure of OCB was used as opposed to context specific scales (OCBI/OCBO) used in this study.

The current study is the first to account for several applicable control variables. Affect towards co-workers and affect towards managers revealed contradicting results. Although affect towards co-workers was a significant control variable impacting student employee exhibition of OCBI towards co-workers, affect towards managers did not significantly impact exhibition of OCBI towards managers. Also, the greater the number of semesters student employees spent with a manager, the higher their OCBI towards the manager. In addition, the percent of variation explained (R^2) increased more when co-worker exhibition of OCBI was introduced into the model than when manager exhibition of OCBI was introduced. Gray, Niehoff, and Miller (2000) found that perceived friendship opportunities improved job satisfaction of students employed in UDS. These results would suggest that co-workers have a higher impact on exhibition of student employee OCBI than managers.

Path analysis results for the current study showed that transformational leadership dimensions of "providing an appropriate model" and "fostering acceptance of group goals" indirectly impacted student employee exhibition of OCBO through job satisfaction and trust in supervisor. Another dimension included in the model, "setting high performance expectations," directly impacted student employee exhibition of OCBO. Paths going through mediating variables of job satisfaction and trust in supervisor were not significant. However,

by comparing the standardized beta values of paths going from "providing an appropriate model" and "fostering acceptance of group goals," to the beta value from the direct path, "setting high performance expectations" ($\beta = 0.19$; $t = 3.00$), it can be observed that the impact of "setting high performance expectations" on student employee exhibition of OCBO is lowest. These findings partially contradict findings of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). The authors found that an aggregate measure of transformational leader behaviors indirectly impacted OCB (not context specific).

Both trust in supervisor and job satisfaction perceptions were impacted by the aggregate measure of transformational leader behaviors; however, only trust in supervisor moderated the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990). In contrast, in the current study, job satisfaction played a more important role as a mediating variable than perceptions of trust in supervisor, when studying the impact of selected transformational leader dimensions on OCBO. This conclusion was made after comparing standardized betas. MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001) found in a sales context that transformational leader behaviors influenced salespersons to perform above and beyond the call of duty. Similar conclusions also can be supported by the current study for the selected transformational leadership dimensions tested.

A confirmatory factor analysis conducted to determine whether or not OCBI and OCBO could stand as two distinct scales showed that the factor loadings for most items in the OCBO were below the desired level of 0.60. The item loadings for the OCBI towards managers and co-workers were, however, above desired levels. These results are similar to the findings of Bolon (1997), where the distinction between OCBI and OCBO was tested in a hospital context. It is also to be noted that the correlation in this study, between an overall

measure of OCBI (OCBI towards managers + OCBI towards co-workers) was 0.586 ($p < .001$). Correlation coefficients found in Williams and Anderson (1991) and Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) were weaker at 0.43 and 0.40, respectively.

A significant, but weak, negative relationship was found between an overall measure of student OCBI and intent to turnover. Chen, Hui, and Sego (1998) also empirically studied the relationship between OCB and turnover. Chen and his colleagues found that negative relationships existed between discretionary behaviors, such as OCB and turnover because such behaviors were not part of the employee's formal organizational role. More research relating OCB and turnover is needed in the hospitality industry due to high employee turnover rates.

Thus far, the relationship between empowerment and turnover has been anecdotal in the hospitality industry. The current research empirically tested this relationship using students employed on a part-time basis in UDS. The moderating effects of power distance and job satisfaction also were tested.

Student employees were asked to share their perceptions of discretionary empowerment as opposed to psychological empowerment for two reasons. First, the focus of this research was to determine the impact of manager and co-worker behaviors on the exhibition of certain work behaviors by student employees. Although psychological empowerment refers to an employee's feelings of being informed, trusted, and in-control; discretionary empowerment includes the management practices of providing employees with latitude to exercise prudent behavior and autonomy. Second, this proposition tested the mediating role of the power-distance construct on employees from various cultures. Hui, Au, and Fock (2004) stated that Eylon and Au (1999) and Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow,

and Lawler (2000) failed to obtain support for the mediating role of power distance because psychological empowerment was measured. Hui et al. (2004) stated that because psychological empowerment deals with internal feelings of employees as opposed to management practices, they may not be affected by the cultural dimension of power distance.

To prevent any biases arising from opinions of ethnic minorities and international students, Caucasian responses were considered when testing the relationship between empowerment and intent to turnover, with moderating roles of power distance and job satisfaction. The current research found that empowerment did not directly impact intent to turnover for student employees in the sample; the relationship was mediated by job satisfaction. A highly significant negative relationship was found between job satisfaction and intent to turnover. An interesting finding was that power distance did not mediate the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction as expected. This contrasted findings of Hui et al. (2004) where power distance was found to moderate the relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction. Also, perceptions of power distance had both a direct significant negative relationship and an indirect significant negative relationship through job satisfaction with student employee intent to turnover. However, by comparing standardized betas it can be concluded that most of the effect is indirect, through job satisfaction.

Another interesting finding is that the mean power-distance score for Caucasian student employees was 3.29 on a 5-point scale. A lower score was expected given that traditionally U.S. has been classified as a low-power distance culture (Hofstede, 1980). The higher mean score for students indicates that student employees do not fit the traditional classification. The comparatively high-power distance scores could be due to low familiarity

levels with foodservice jobs. Less than half (47%) of all respondents stated that their current job was their first job in foodservice. Another cause could be exposure to high-power distance cultures through interactions with student employees from traditionally high-power distance cultures. Higher power-distance scores also could be a result of changes taking place in societies over time.

Managerial Implications

A summary of managerial implications is available in Table 10. These implications are discussed in further detail in this section.

Results of this study show that managers and co-workers of student employees impact exhibition of OCBI by student employees towards these populations. Hence, managers can serve as an example and initiate exhibition of citizenship behaviors towards student employees and encourage reciprocation of OCBI from student employees. Managers also can be educated on the importance of exhibition of citizenship behaviors. Consequences of OCB include improved customer perceptions of service quality (Bienstock, DeMoranville, & Smith, 2003), reduced turnover (Chen et al., 1998), increased customer loyalty (Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2004), and improved organizational performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Backrach, 2000). Other advantages of exhibiting citizenship behaviors include stricter adherence to set service standards by employees.

Exhibition of citizenship behaviors by student employees could reduce absenteeism, lack of motivation and increased turnover intentions, which have been identified as problems associated with students employed in UDS (Bartlett, Probber, & Scerbo, 1999). It is also essential to create a work environment that encourages exhibition of these behaviors due to potential benefits that are available to employees. One respondent emailed additional

comments that she could not "stand around doing nothing" when work was slow. She also said that this was because her co-worker was stocking items (when work was slow), and the manager was observing both employees.

This study found that students employed in UDS view their managers as models. If UDS managers "do" rather than "tell", encourage team work, and set high standards for employees; student employees will be encouraged to exhibit OCBO. Power-distance scores of Caucasian student employees suggest that they require proper guidance from managers.

Finally, discretionary empowerment perceptions of student employees (Caucasian) were found to impact job satisfaction directly in the UDS context. Thus, with careful initial supervision and guidance, UDS managers could provide student employees with discretion and autonomy.

Limitations

Due to the design of the research, this study has the following limitations.

1. Results cannot be extended to university dining services other than the one used in this study.
2. Although students in this study were employed in a variety of dining facilities including residence dining halls, cafes, restaurants, and conference centers; all facilities were located within the university. Therefore, results cannot be extended to other contexts.
3. Only part-time students employed in UDS formed the sample. Therefore, results cannot be generalized to other types of employees in UDS.
4. A Cronbach's alpha range of 0.70-1.00 is considered acceptable in the social sciences. Cronbach's alpha for two scales (OCBO and Intent to Turnover) were in the

0.60-0.70 range. Thus, further testing is necessary before making widespread application of the instrument.

Future Research

With increasing numbers of international students in the U.S. university student population, more employees from high-and low-power distance cultures will form the workforce of UDS. Hence, it is essential to determine if empowerment will result in increased job satisfaction for members of all cultures employed in the UDS in U.S. It is also essential to determine whether or not perceptions of power distance change for individuals from traditionally high-power distance cultures, after obtaining an education in the U.S. The ramifications of such changes, if any, should be explored to determine if these students decided to return to their home countries upon graduation, or decide to pursue employment in the U.S.

Student employee OCBO (SEOCBO) and intent to turnover scale reliabilities were below 0.70. Thus, further research is needed to improve reliabilities. More items also may have to be added to ensure convergent validity.

Replication in different UDS in the U.S. is needed to determine whether or not geographic location and other causes not identified in this research impact exhibition of extra-role behaviors in student employees. This will improve generalizability of findings.

A training program detailing various dimensions of OCB and behaviors that would be classified as OCBI and OCBO could be developed specifically for UDS managers. Effectiveness of the training program could be tested using a pre-test/post-test methodology. Program success in everyday operations can be tested by monitoring employee and customer

satisfaction, repeat business, and level of adherence to service standards and work policies (absenteeism).

There also is scope for OCB research in the broader hospitality context. According to the 2004 restaurant forecast report of the National Restaurant Association; recruiting and retaining employees, building and maintaining sales volumes, and increasing operational costs were top challenges faced by quick-service restaurant operators. Labor productivity and efficiency also were mentioned as challenges in the 2005 restaurant forecast report. The same report stated that restaurant sales were forecasted to reach record levels during 2005. According to the HRG/PKF Consulting's 2005 U.S. Lodging Forecast, hotel revenues will be comparable to the industry's last "high-water mark." International and domestic travel and tourism are projected to rebound to pre-9/11 volume levels.

Given the optimistic outlook for U.S. hospitality industry segments, employee turnover could continue to be a problem with more opportunities being available in competing properties. With predicted trends such as increasing demand for hospitality jobs, high turnover, and low productivity rates; it is essential to study the impact of OCB exhibition on turnover intentions. In addition, continued research to explore the relationships between OCB and operational efficiencies, and OCB and labor productivity is needed.

Current OCB research in hospitality has considered only chain restaurants and the travel and resort sectors. Lodging companies, conference and convention centers, gaming and casino operations, clubs, and institutional foodservice virtually have been unrepresented in OCB research. An operation's clientele, specialty, and type of

service; nature of employees' job duties; employment status of employees; and challenges; vary from one segment to another within hospitality.

Organizational characteristics such as profit orientation, existence of worker unions, public and private status of operation are some factors that account for variations in an organization's mission that could dictate exhibition of OCB by employees. Geographic locations of various hospitality organizations also could affect OCB exhibited by employees due to variations in work cultures in different countries. Performance also varies within segments. For instance, in the lodging industry; room rates, amenities offered, and quality of service provided determine whether or not a property is luxury, upscale, mid-price, economy, or budget.

Research also is needed to study formation of OCB in various types of employees. Stamper and Van Dyne (2003) and the current study are the only known research to address formation of OCB. However, with increasing number of Americans choosing to continue to work after reaching retirement age, it is essential to study work behaviors of older workers in the hospitality industry. According to a 2004 report by the National Restaurant Association Educational Foundation, the number of 16- to 24-year-olds in the American labor pool is projected to increase only 9% from 2002 to 2012, compared with the 20% jump for older American workers (Berta, 2004).

With the hospitality industry workforce becoming increasingly diverse, it also is essential to address differences in the formation of OCB in employees from different cultures. For instance, managers could have a different impact on the formation of OCB in employees from high-power-distance countries (Hofstede, 1980) than employees from low-power-distance countries (Hofstede, 1980). There also could be an interaction between

empowerment perceptions and exhibition of OCB among employees from different ethnic backgrounds.

REFERENCES

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.

Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(2), 247–260.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Begley, T.M. (2003). The employment relationships of foreign workers versus local employees: A field study of organizational justice, job satisfaction, performance, and OCB. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*(5), 561-583.

Antolik, C. (1993). Retaining employees; hoteliers are attempting to minimize turnover via empowerment and specifically planned career pathing. *Hotel & Motel Management, 208*(15), 20-21.

Arnold, H., & Feldman, D. (1982). A multivariate analysis of the determinants of job turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*(3), 350-360.

Arthur, J.B. (1994). Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(3), 670-687.

Ashforth, B. E. (1989). The experience of powerlessness in organizations. Or*ganizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 43*(2), 207-242.

Bandura, A. (1968). A social learning interpretation of psychological dysfunctions. In P. London & D. Rosenham (Eds.), *Foundations of Abnormal Psychology* (pp. 293-344). New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Bandura, A. (1969). *Principles of Behavior Modification.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory.* New York: General Learning Press.

Bartlett, A. L., Probber, J. K., & Scerbo, F. B. (1999). Student employees in university food service: Job design, job characteristics, and job satisfaction. *The Journal of the National Association of College & University Food Services, 21*, 1-17.

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations.* New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M., Waldman, D. A., Avolio, B. J., & Bebb, M. (1987). Transformational leadership and the falling dominoes effect. *Group and Organization Studies, 12*(1), 73-87.

Bell, N. E., & Staw, B. M. (1989). People as sculptors versus sculpture: The roles of personality and personal control in organizations. In M.B. Arthur, D.T. Hall, & B.S. Lawrence (Eds.), *Handbook of Career Theory*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Berta, D. (2004). Operators look to older workers to swell ranks. *Nation's Restaurant News, 38*(41), 4-5.

Bienstock, C.C., DeMoranville, C.W., & Smith, R.K. (2003). Organizational citizenship behavior and service quality. *Journal of Services Marketing, 17*(4), 357-378.

Blau, J.R., & Alba, R.D. (1982). Empowering nets of participation. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 27*(3), 363-379.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and Power in Social Life*. New York City, NY: Wiley.

Bolon, D.S. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior among hospital employees: A multidimensional analysis involving job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Hospital & Health Services Administration, 42*(2), 221-241.

Bommer, W., Miles, W., & Grover, S. (2003). Does one good turn deserve another? Co-worker influences on employee citizenship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24,*181-196.

Bowen, D.E., & Lawler, E.E. (1992). The empowerment of service workers: What, why, how and when. *Sloan Management Review, 33*(3), 31-39.

Bowen, D.E., & Lawler, E.E. (1995). Empowering service employees. *Sloan Management Review, 36*(4), 73-84.

Brief, A. P., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(4), 710-725.

Brief, A. P., & Nord, W. R. (1990). *Meanings of Occupational Work.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Brockner, J., Ackerman, G., Greenberg, J., Gelfand, M.J., Francesca, A.M.F., Chen, Z.X., et al. (2001). Culture and procedural justice: The influence of power distance on reactions to voice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 37,* 300-315.

Brymer, R.A. (1991). Employee empowerment: A guest-driven leadership strategy. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 32*(1), 58-68.

Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership.* New York: Harper & Row.

Camman, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1979). *The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire.* Unpublished manuscript, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Castro, C. B., Armario, E.M., & Ruiz, D.M. (2004). The influence of employee organizational citizenship behavior on customer loyalty. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 15*(1), 27-53.

Chen, X., Hui, C., & Sego, D.J. (1998). The role of organizational citizenship behavior in turnover: Conceptualization and preliminary tests of key hypotheses. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(6), 922-931.

Clark, T. (1990). International marketing and national character: A review and proposal for an integrative theory. *Journal of Marketing, 54*(4), 66-79.

Corsun, D.L., & Enz, C.A. (1999). Predicting psychological empowerment among service workers: The effect of support-based relationships. *Human Relations, 52*(2), 205-224.

Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13*, 46-78.

Davis, T.R., & Luthans, F. (1980). A social learning approach to organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review, 5*(2), 281-290.

Deckop, J.R., Cirka, C.C., & Andersson, L.M. (2003). Doing unto others: The reciprocity of helping behavior in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics, 47*(2), 101-111.

Deluga, R. J. (1994). Supervisor trust building, leader-member exchange, and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 67*, 315-326.

Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(3), 618-634.

Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Duchon, D., Green, S. G., & Taber, T. D. (1986). Vertical dyad linkage: A longitudinal assessment of antecedents, measures, and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(1), 56-60.

Employment Policy Foundation. (2004, October 22). *Employee turnover is expensive.* Retrieved January 10, 2005 from ww.epf.org/pubs/newsletters/2004/fs20041022.pdf.

Erstad, M. (1997). Empowerment and organizational change. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 9*(7), 325-333.

Eylon, D., & Au, K.Y. (1999). Exploring empowerment cross-cultural differences along the power distance dimension. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 23*(3), 373-385.

Feather, N.T., & Rauter, K.A. (2004). Organizational citizenship behaviours in relation to job status, job insecurity, organizational commitment and identification, job satisfaction and work values. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77*(1), 81-94.

Felfe, J., & Schyns, B. (2004). Is similarity in leadership related to organizational outcomes? The case of transformational leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 10*, 92-102.

Fulford, M. D., & Enz, C. A. (1995). The impact of empowerment on service employees. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 7*(2), 161-175.

Fusilier, M., & Durlabhji, S. (2001). Cultural values of Indian managers: An exploration through unstructured interviews. *International Journal of Value-Based Management, 14*(3), 223-236.

Ginsberg, T., & Ochoa, P. (2003, November 4). Foreign-student enrollment at U.S. colleges grows nationwide. *Knight Ridder Tribune Business News,* p.1.

Gist, M., & Mitchell, T. N. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinations and malleability. *Academy of Management Review, 17*(2), 183-211.

Goldstein, A.P., & Sorcher, M. (1974). *Changing supervisory behavior.* New York: Pergamon.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The Norm of Reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*, 161-178.

Graen, G., & Cashman, J. (1975). A Role-making model of leadership in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In J. G Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership Frontiers* (pp. 143-165). Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.

Graham, J.W. (1988). Chapter 3 commentary: Transformational leadership: Fostering follower autonomy, not automatic followership. In J.G. Hunt, B.R. Baliga, H.P. Dachler, & C.A. Schriesheim (Eds.), *Emerging leadership vistas* (pp. 73-79). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Gray, R.A., Niehoff, B.P. & Miller, J.L. (2000). The effect of job characteristics on student employee job satisfaction and intent to turnover in college and university food service. *The Journal of the National Association of College & University Food Services, 22*, 44-57.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*, 159-170.

Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., & Black, W.C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hancer, M., & George, R.T. (2003). Psychological empowerment of non-supervisory employees working in full-service restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 22*(1), 3-16.

Hartline, M.D., & Ferrell, O.C. (1996). The management of customer-contact service employees: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Marketing, 60* (4), 52-70.

Hickman, J., & Mayer, K.J. (2003). Service quality and human resource practices: A theme park case study. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 15*(2), 116-119.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Hogan, J.J. (1992). Turnover and what to do about it. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 33*(1), 40-45.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6*, 1-55.

Huang, J-H., Huang, C-T., & Wu, S. (1996). National character and response to unsatisfactory hotel service. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 15*(3), 229-243.

Hubrecht, J., & Teare, R. (1993). A strategy for partnership in total quality service. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 5*(3), 1-5.

Hui, M.K., Au, K.Y., & Fock, H. (2004). Empowerment effects across cultures. *Journal of International Business Studies, 35*(1), 46-60.

Huseman, R.C., Hatfield, J.D., & Miles, E.W. (1985). Test for individual perceptions of job equity: Some preliminary findings. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 61*, 1055-1064.

Ingram, H., & Jones, S. (1998). Teamwork and the management of food service operations. *Team Performance Management, 4*(2), 67-71.

Institute of International Education. (2003). *International student enrollment growth slows in 2002/2003, large gains from leading countries offset numerous decreases.* Retrieved November 11, 2004 from http://opendoors.iienetwork.org/?p=36523.

Kanfer, F.H., & Karoly, P. (1972). Some additional conceptualizations. In R. C. Johnson, P.R. Dokecki, & O.H. Mowrer (Eds.), *Conscience, Contract, and Social Reality* (pp. 428-437). New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Kelley, S.W. (1993). Discretion and the service employee. *Journal of Retailing, 69*(1), 104-126.

Kelly, S.E. (2003). Bioethics and rural health: Theorizing place, space, and subjects. S*ocial Science & Medicine, 56*, 2277–2288.

Kline, R.B. (2005). *Principles and practices of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York: Guilford Publications, Inc.

Koys, D.J. (2001). The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: A unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology, 54*(1), 101-114.

Lashley, C. (1995). Towards an understanding of employee empowerment in hospitality services. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 7*(1), 27-32.

Lashley, C. (1996). Research issues for employee empowerment in hospitality operations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 15*(3), 283-298.

Lester, S.W., & Brower, H.H. (2003). In the eyes of the beholder: The relationship between subordinates' felt trustworthiness and their work attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 10*(2), 17-33.

Liden, R. C., & Graen, G. (1980). Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. *Academy of Management Journal, 23*(3), 451-465.

Lin, S. (2003). *University foodservice employees' food safety knowledge, attitudes, practices, and training.* Unpublished master's thesis, Iowa State University, Ames.

Lum, L. (2003). A welcome increase. *Black Issues in Higher Education, 20*(18), 36.

Lum, L., Kervin, J., Clark, K., Reid, F., & Sirola, W. (1998). Explaining nursing turnover intent: Job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, or organizational commitment? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 19*(3), 305-320.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P.M., & Rich, G.A. (2001). Transformational leadership and transactional leadership and salesperson performance. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 2*, 115-134.

Mahoney, M.J. (1977). Reflections on the cognitive-learning trend in psychotherapy. *American Psychologist, 32,* 5-13.

Manz, C.C., & Sims, H.O. (1981). Vicarious learning: The influence of modeling on organizational behavior. *The Academy of Management Review, 6*(1), 105-113.

Milman, A. (2002). Hourly employee retention in the attraction industry: Research from small and medium-sized facilities in Orlando, Florida. *Journal of Leisure Property, 2*(1), 40-51.

Moore, D.P. (2002). The new "typical" student. *School Planning and Management, 41*(10), 8.

Moorman, R. H., Niehoff, B.P., & Organ, D.W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behavior: Sorting the effects of jobs satisfaction, organizational commitment and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibility and Rights Journal, 6*(3), 209-225.

Neumann, R., Stevens, A.N., & Graham, A. (2001). Student attitudes toward part-time employment while in college. *The Journal of the National Association of College & University Food Service, 23,* 45-50.

Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric theory.* New York City, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D.W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In B.M. Staw and L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (43-72). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance, 10*(2), 85-97.

Organ, D. W., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(1), 157–164.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 48*, 775-802.

Pastor, J. (1996). Empowerment: What it is and what it is not. *Empowerment in Organizations, 4*(2), 5-7.

Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(2), 262–270.

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing Research, 3*(1), 351–363.

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1995). An examination of substitutes for leadership within levels of analysis framework. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*(3), 289–328.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., & Bommer, W.H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management, 22*(2), 259-298.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly, 1*(2), 107–142.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Paine, J.B., & Backrach, D.G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management, 26*(3), 513-563.

Quinn, R.E., & Spreitzer, G.M. (1997). The road to empowerment: Seven questions every leader should consider. *Organizational Dynamics, 26*(2), 37-49.

Rafiq, M., & Ahmed, P.K. (1998). A contingency model for empowering customer-contact services employees. *Management Decision, 36*(10), 686-694.

Robert, C., Probst, T.M., Martocchio, J.J., Drasgow, F., & Lawler, J.J. (2000). Empowerment and continuous improvement in the United States, Mexico, Poland and India: Predicting fit on the basis of the dimensions of power distance and individualism. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(5), 643-658.

Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(6), 658-672.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 23*(2), 224-243.

Schlessinger, L.A., & Heskett, J.L. (1991). Breaking the cycle of failure in services. *Sloan Management Review, 32*(3), 17-28.

Schnake, M., Dumler, M.P., & Cochran, D.S. (1993). The relationship between "traditional" leadership, "super" leadership, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Group and Organization Management, 18*(3), 352-365.

Shenberger, R. (1995). Still paying for hours on the job? Think again. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 18*(1), 88-91.

Simons, T., & Hinkin, T. (2001). The effect of employee turnover on hotel profits. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 42*(4), 65-69.

Singh, J. (1993). Boundary role ambiguity: facets, determinants, and impacts. *Journal of Marketing, 57*(2), 11-31.

Somech, A., & Drach-Zahavy, A. (2004). Exploring organizational citizenship behaviour from an organizational perspective: The relationship between organizational learning and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77*(3), 281-298.

Sparrowe, R. T. (1994). Empowerment in the hospitality industry: An exploration of antecedents and outcomes. *Hospitality Research Journal*, 17(3): 51-73.

Spreitzer, G.M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: dimensions, measurement, and validation, *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(5): 1442-1465.

Stamper, C.L., & Van Dyne, L. (2003). Organizational citizenship: A comparison between part-time and fulltime service employees. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 44*(1), 33-42.

Thomas, K., & Velthouse, B. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An interpretive model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review, 15*(4), 666-681.

Tracey, J.B., & Hinkin, T.R. (1994). Transformational leaders in the hospitality industry. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 35*(2), 18-24.

Wayne, S.J., & Ferris, G.R. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(5), 487-499.

Williams, L., & Anderson, S.E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*(3), 601-617.

Wong, Y., Ngo, H., & Wong, C. (2003). Antecedents and outcomes of employees' trust in Chinese joint ventures. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 20*(4), 481-493.

Wright, D. (Producer), & Kadis, J. (Director). (1998). *NACUFS Student Videoconference* [Videotape]. East Lansing, MI: NACUFS.

Yoon, M.H., & Suh. J. (2003). Organizational citizenship behaviors and service quality as external effectiveness of contact employees. *Journal of Business Research, 56*(8), 597– 611.

Young, C.A., Corsun, D.L., & Shinnar, R.S. (2004). Moving from fire-fighting to fire prevention: What service organizations need to know. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 16*(1), 29-36.

Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L.L., & Parasuraman, A. (1988). Communication and control processes in the delivery of service quality. *Journal of Marketing, 52*(2), 35-48.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
Correlation Matrix 1

Correlation Matrix of Control Variables Included in the Manager OCBI Hierarchical Regression Model

	Gender	Age	Sem. Employed	Sem. w/ Supervisor	Flexible Work Schedule	Hourly Pay Rate	Job Related to Major	Affect towards Manager	Interaction Time w/ Manager	Hours a Week	Ethnic Back-ground	Educa -tion Year	Tuition Source
Gender	1												
Age	-.044	1											
Sem. Employed	.079	.295 (**)	1										
Sem. w/ Supervisor	.023	.206 (**)	.691 (**)	1									
Flexibility of Work Schedule	-.028	.033	.066	.171 (**)	1								
Hourly Pay Rate	.085	.013	.038	.054	.213 (**)	1							
Job Related to Major	.113	.224 (**)	-.043	-.046	.012	-.039	1						
Affect towards Manager	-.092	.010	.036	.091	.095	.095	-.027	1					
Interaction Time w/ Manager	.169 (**)	.040	.015	.017	.032	-.001	.119	.282 (**)	1				
Hours a Week	.104	.115	.238 (**)	.141 (*)	-.028	.070	.146 (*)	.035	.117	1			
Ethnic Backgrnd	.039	-.089	-.014	.095	.119	.067	-.015	.090	.079	.071	1		
Education Year	.116	.667 (**)	.411 (**)	.317 (**)	.018	-.034	.122 (*)	-.025	.002	.152 (*)	-.109	1	
Tuition Source	-.105	.070	.097	.065	-.019	.004	-.055	.112	.106	.064	.082	-.030	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX B
Correlation Matrix 2

Correlation Matrix of Control Variables Included in the Co-worker OCBI Hierarchical Regression Model

	Gender	Age	Sem. Employed	Flexibility of Work Schedule	Hourly Pay Rate	Job Related to Major	Affect Towards Co-workers	Interaction Time w/ Coworkers	Hours A Week	Ethnic Back-ground	Educa-tion Year	Tuition Source
Gender	1											
Age	-.048	1										
Sem. Employed	.076	.293 (**)	1									
Flexibility of Work Schedule	-.032	.030	.072	1								
Hourly Pay Rate	.077	.016	.038	.216 (**)	1							
Job Related to Major	.109	.223 (**)	-.045	.015	-.034	1						
Affect towards Co-workers	.016	-.020	-.052	.072	.045	-.008	1					
Interaction Time w/ Coworkers	.127 (*)	.004	.056	.111	.016	.190 (**)	.306 (**)	1				
Hours A Week	.087	.112	.227 (**)	-.029	.087	.147 (*)	.028	-.006	1			
Ethnic Background	.035	-.091	-.021	.109	.072	-.013	.074	.027	.083	1		
Education Year	.115	.667 (**)	.407 (**)	.006	-.035	.120 (*)	-.015	.048	.149(*)	-.108	1	
Tuition Source	-.102	.068	.096	-.020	.002	-.055	-.014	.083	.063	.086	-.032	1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX C
ISU Committee on the Use of Human Subjects Review Approval

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Institutional Review Board
Office of Research Compliance
Vice President for Research
[illegible]

DATE: March 21, 2005

TO: Swathi Ravichandran

FROM: Human Subject Research Compliance Office

RE: **IRB ID #** 05-111

STUDY REVIEW DATE: March 21, 2005

The Institutional Review Board has reviewed the project, "Relationship between formation of extra-role work behaviors and turnover in students employed by university dining services" requirements of the human subject protections regulations as described in 45 CFR 46.101(b)2. The applicable exemption category is provided below for your information. Please note that you must submit all research involving human participants for review by the IRB. Only the IRB may make the determination of exemption, even if you conduct a study in the future that is exactly like this study.

The IRB determination of exemption means that this project does not need to meet the requirements from the Department of Health and Human Service (DHHS) regulations for the protection of human subjects, unless required by the IRB. We do, however, urge you to protect the rights of your participants in the same ways that you would if your project was required to follow the regulations. This includes providing relevant information about the research to the participants.

Because your project is exempt, you do not need to submit an application for continuing review. However, you must carry out the research as proposed in the IRB application, including obtaining and documenting (signed) informed consent if you have stated in your application that you will do so or required by the IRB.

Any modification of this research must be submitted to the IRB on a Continuation and/or Modification form, prior to making any changes, to determine if the project still meets the Federal criteria for exemption. If it is determined that exemption is no longer warranted, then an IRB proposal will need to be submitted and approved before proceeding with data collection.

cc: AESHM
Shirley Gilmore

Applicable exemption category(s):

(1) Research conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings, involving normal educational practices, such as (i) research on regular and special education instructional strategies, or (ii) research on the effectiveness of or the comparison among instructional techniques, curricula, or classroom management methods.

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

(3) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior that is not exempt under paragraph (b)(2) of this section, if: (i) the human subjects are elected or appointed public officials or candidates for public office; or (ii) Federal statute(s) require(s) without exception that the confidentiality of the personally identifiable information will be maintained throughout the research and thereafter.

(4) Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

(5) Research and demonstration projects which are conducted by or subject to the approval of Department or Agency heads, and which are designed to study, evaluate, or otherwise examine: (i) Public benefit or service programs; (ii) procedures for obtaining benefits or services under those programs; (iii) possible changes in or alternatives to those programs or procedures; or (iv) possible changes in methods or levels of payment for benefits or services under those programs.

(6) Taste and food quality evaluation and consumer acceptance studies, (i) if wholesome foods without additives are consumed or (ii) if a food is consumed that contains a food ingredient at or below the level and for a use found to be safe, or agricultural chemical or environmental contaminant at or below the level found to be safe, by the Food and Drug Administration or approved by the Environmental Protection Agency or the Food Safety and Inspection Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

For IRB Use Only		
	Review Date: _____	IRB ID: 05-111
	Approval Date: _____	Length of Approval: _____
	Approval Expiration Date: _____	FULL Committee Review: _____
	EXEMPT per 45 CFR 46.101(b): 2 Date: 2/24/05	Minimal Risk: ✓
	EXPEDITED per 45 CFR 46.110(b) _____	More than Minimal Risk: _____
	Category _____, Letter _____	Project Closed Date: _____

ISU NEW HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH FORM

IRB
FEB 2 8 2005

SECTION I: GENERAL INFORMATION

Principal Investigator (PI): Swathi Ravichandran	Phone: 515-294-7474	Fax: 515-294-6364
Degrees: MBA	Correspondence Address: 31 MacKay	
Department: AESHM	Email Address: swathi@iastate.edu	
Center/Institute: Iowa State University	College: Family and Consumer Sciences	
PI Level: ☐ Faculty ☐ Staff ☐ Postdoctoral ☒ Graduate Student ☐ Undergraduate Student		

Title of Project:
Relationship between formation of extra-role work behaviors and turnover in students employed by university dining services
Project Period (Include Start and End Date): [mm/dd/yy] [3/1/05] to [mm/yy/dd] [05/31/06]

FOR STUDENT PROJECTS	
Name of Major Professor/Supervising Faculty: Dr. Shirley Gilmore	Signature of Major Professor/Supervising Faculty: Shirley Gilmore
Phone: 515-294-7474	Campus Address: 31 MacKay
Department: AESHM	Email Address: sgilmore@iastate.edu
Type of Project: (check all that apply) ☐ Research ☐ Thesis ☒ Dissertation ☐ Class project ☐ Independent Study (490, 590, Honors project) ☐ Other. Please specify:	

KEY PERSONNEL

List all members of the research team including the principal investigator, his/her degrees, their position at ISU (or other organization) and role on the project, their training and most recent date of their training if known. Please use additional space as necessary. For projects involving animals, please include the veterinary, animal caretakers and technical staff. For projects involving human subjects, please include anyone who will have contact with the subjects.

NAME & DEGREE(S)	POSITION AT ISU & ROLE/SPECIFIC DUTIES ON PROJECT	TRAINING & DATE OF TRAINING
e.g., John Jones, MD, PHD	*M.D. at Mary Greeley Medical Center. Co-Principal Investigator. For animal studies please list specific duties, e.g., will perform surgery, will perform blood draws, responsible for animal care, will perform biopsies, daily monitoring, etc.*	*ISU Human Subject Training, 10/15/02. Radiation Safety Training, 10/01/02. Blood Borne Pathogen Training, 11/13/02. Eleven years of laboratory use of blood borne pathogens.*
1. Swathi Ravichandran, MBA	Graduate Student at ISU. Principal Investigator	ISU Human Subjects Training, 7/10/02
2. Shirley Gilmore, PhD., RD, LD	Professor – Apparel, Educational Studies, and Hospitality Management	ISU Human Subjects Training, 9/17/00

	at ISU, serving as Major Professor
3.	

FUNDING INFORMATION

If internally funded, please provide account number:
If externally funded, please provide funding source and account number:
If funding is pending please provide OSPA Record ID on GoldSheet:
Title on GoldSheet if Different Than Above: --
Other: *e.g., funding will be applied for later.* Funding will be applied for later.

SCIENTIFIC REVIEW

Although the compliance committees are not intended to conduct peer review of research proposals, the federal regulations include language such as "consistent with sound research design," "rationale for involving animals or humans" and "scientifically valuable research," which requires that the committees consider in their review the general scientific relevance of a research study. Proposals that do not meet these basic tests are not justifiable and cannot be approved. If a compliance review committee(s) has concerns about the scientific merit of a project and the project was not competitively funded by peer review or was funded by corporate sponsors, the project may be referred to a scientific review committee. The scientific review committee will be ad hoc and will consist of your ISU peers and outside experts as needed. If this situation arises, the PI will be contacted and given the option of agreeing that a consultant may be contacted or withdrawing the proposal from consideration.

☒ Yes ☐ No Has or will this project receive peer review?

If the answer is "yes," please indicate who did or will conduct the review: Dissertation Committee Members including ISU faculty Dr. Catherine Strohbehn, Dr. Amit Sharma, Dr. Florence Harnack, and Dr. John Wong

If a review was conducted, please indicate the outcome of the review:

NOTE: RESPONSE CELLS WILL EXPAND AS YOU TYPE AND PROVIDE SUFFICIENT SPACE FOR YOUR RESPONSE.

COLLECTION OR RECEIPT OF SAMPLES

Will you be: (Please check all the apply.)

☐ Yes ☒ No Receiving samples from outside of ISU? See examples below.
☐ Yes ☒ No Sending samples outside of ISU? See examples below.

Examples include: genetically modified organisms, body fluids, tissue samples, blood samples, pathogens.

If you will be receiving samples from or sending samples outside of ISU, please identify the name of the outside organization(s) and the identity of the samples you will be sending or receiving outside of ISU:

No samples will be received.

Please note that some samples may require a USDA Animal Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS) permit, a USPHS Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Import Permit for Etiologic Agents, a Registration for Select Agents, High Consequence Livestock Pathogens and Toxins or Listed Plant Pathogens, or a Material Transfer Agreement (MTA) (http://www.ehs.iastate.edu/bs/shipping.htm).

STUDY OBJECTIVES

Briefly explain in **language understandable to a layperson** the specific aim(s) of the study.

Objectives of the study are to understand the (1) influence that dining facility managers have on exhibition of organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals (OCBI) by student employees; (2) influence that co-workers have on exhibition of OCBI by student employees; (3) role of transformational leadership exhibited by dining facility managers on exhibition of organizational citizenship behavior towards organization (OCBO) by student employees; (4) moderating effects of trust in supervisor and job satisfaction on the relationship between transformational leadership exhibited by supervisors and exhibition of OCBO by student employees; (5) relationship between OCBO and intent to turnover; (6) relationship between OCBI and intent to turnover; (7) relationship between student employees' perceptions of empowerment and its impact on their intents to turnover; and (8) moderating effects of power distance and job satisfaction on the relationship between students' empowerment perceptions and intents to turnover.

BENEFIT

Explain in **language understandable to a layperson** how the information gained in this study will benefit participants or the advancement of knowledge, and/or serve the good of society.

This is the only known study to address the influence that managers and co-workers have in the formation of organizational citizenship behaviors in students employed in university foodservice. This is also the only known study to investigate the relationship between empowerment and turnover intentions as moderated by power distance dimension, in this population.

ASSURANCE

- I certify that the information provided in this application is complete and accurate and consistent with any proposal(s) submitted to external funding agencies.
- I agree to provide proper surveillance of this project to ensure that the rights and welfare of the human subject or welfare of animal subjects are protected. I will report any problems to the appropriate compliance review committee(s).
- I agree that I will not begin this project until receipt of official approval from all appropriate committee(s).
- I agree that modifications to the originally approved project will not take place without prior review and approval by the appropriate committee(s), and that all activities will be performed in accordance with all applicable federal, state, local and Iowa State University policies.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

A conflict of interest can be defined as a set of conditions in which an investigator's or key personnel's judgment regarding a project (including human or animal subject welfare, integrity of the research) may be influenced by a secondary interest (e.g., the proposed project and/or a relationship with the sponsor). ISU's Conflict of Interest Policy requires that investigators and key personnel disclose any significant financial interests or relationships that may present an actual or potential conflict of interest. By signing this form below, you are certifying that all members of the research team, including yourself, have read and understand ISU's Conflict of Interest policy as addressed by the ISU Faculty Handbook (http://www.provost.iastate.edu/faculty.) and have made all required disclosures.

☐ Yes ☒ No Do you or any member of your research team have an actual or potential conflict of interest?
☐ Yes ☐ No If yes, have the appropriate disclosure form(s) been completed?

SIGNATURES

Swathi R. 2/25/05
Signature of Principal Investigator Date

2/25/05
Signature of Department Chair Date

PLEASE NOTE: Any changes to an approved protocol must be submitted to the appropriate committee(s) before the changes may be implemented.

Please proceed to SECTION II.

SECTION II: ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH AND SAFETY INFORMATION

☐ Yes ☒ No Does this project involve human cell or tissue cultures (primary OR immortalized), or human blood components, body fluids or tissues? If the answer is "no", please proceed to SECTION III: APPLICATION FOR IRB APPROVAL. If the answer is "yes," please proceed to Part A: Human Cell Lines.

PART A: HUMAN CELL LINES

☐ Yes ☒ No Does this project involve human cell or tissue cultures (primary OR immortalized cell lines/strains) that have been documented to be free of bloodborne pathogens? If the answer is "yes," please attach copies of the documentation. If the answer is "no," please answer question 1 below.

1) Please list the specific cell lines/strains to be used, their source and description of use.

CELL LINE	SOURCE	DESCRIPTION OF USE

2) Please refer to the ISU "Bloodborne Pathogens Manual," which contains the requirements of the OSHA Bloodborne Pathogens Standard. Please list the specific precautions to be followed for this project below (e.g., retractable needles used for blood draws):

Not applicable

Anyone working with human cell lines/strains that have not been documented to be free of bloodborne pathogens is required to have Bloodborne Pathogen Training annually. Current Bloodborne Pathogen Training dates must be listed in Section I for all Key Personnel. Please contact Environmental Health and Safety (294-5359) if you need to sign up for training and/or to get a copy of the Bloodborne Pathogens Manual (http://www.ehs.iastate.edu/bs/bbp.htm).

PART B: HUMAN BLOOD COMPONENTS, BODY FLUIDS OR TISSUES

☐ Yes ☒ No Does this project involve human blood components, body fluids or tissues? If "yes", please answer all of the questions in the "Human Blood Components, Body Fluids or Tissues" section.

1) Please list the specific human substances used, their source, amount and description of use.

SUBSTANCE	SOURCE	AMOUNT	DESCRIPTION OF USE
E.g., Blood	*Normal healthy volunteers*	*2 ml*	*Approximate quantity, assays to be done.*

2) Please refer to the ISU "Bloodborne Pathogens Manual," which contains the requirements of the OSHA Bloodborne Pathogens Standard. Specific sections to be followed for this project are:

Anyone working with human blood components, body fluids or tissues is required to have Bloodborne Pathogen Training annually. Current Bloodborne Pathogen Training dates must be listed in Section I for all Key Personnel. Please contact *Environmental Health and Safety* (294-5359) if you need to sign up for training and/or to get a copy of the Bloodborne Pathogens Manual (http://www.ehs.lastate.edu/bs/bbp.htm).

FOR ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH AND SAFETY USE ONLY

Signature of Biological Safety Officer

Date

Please proceed to Section III.

questionnaire will be emailed to all students employed in university dining facilities.

2) Attach a copy of any recruitment material such as ad. fliers, e-mail messages, etc. See attached

3) How will the subjects be selected? (*e.g., where will the names come from?*)

The names of students will come from email addresses provided by ISU dining. For the pilot study, the names of subjects will not be known because the email will be forwarded by the Food and Nutrition department director.

4) Please list the inclusion/exclusion for subject selection and include an explanation.

All participants must be university students employed on a part-time basis (20 hours or less) by a foodservice establishment associated with campus dining services. For the pilot study, all participants must be part-time students employed in the University of Iowa Hospital.

Please answer each question. If the question does not pertain to this study, please type not applicable (N/A).

PART E: RESEARCH PLAN

Include sufficient detail for IRB review of this project independent of the grant, protocol, or other documents.

1) Describe study procedures to which subjects will be exposed (e.g. for blood draws, include frequency and amount, who will be drawing the blood and their training).

Participants will be asked to complete questionnaires identifying work behaviors of managers, co-workers, and themselves, turnover intentions, and some demographic questions.

2) For studies involving pathology/diagnostic specimens, indicate whether specimens will be collected prospectively and/or already exist "on the shelf" at the time of submission of this review form. If prospective, describe specimen procurement procedures; indicate whether any additional medical information about the subject is being gathered, and whether specimens are linked at any time by code number to the subject's identity.

Not applicable

3) For studies involving deception, please justify the deception and indicate the debriefing procedure, including the timing and information to be presented to subjects.

Not applicable

PART F: CONSENT PROCESS

1) Explain how the subjects will be contacted (*e.g., letter, phone, email, in person, etc.*) If the subjects are under 18, include how the parents or guardians will be approached as well.

Only adult subjects (18 years or older) will be contacted for this study. Subjects will be contacted directly via email. For the pilot study, the director of the Food and Nutrition department at the University of Iowa Hospital will forward the email with the cover letter and link to survey. Subjects will not be contacted directly.

2) Describe how informed consent will be obtained (*e.g., who will contact the subjects, how many times, etc.*) Describe in detail the entire consent process.

The cover letter will be the body of email sent to students employed in ISU dining. For the pilot study, the cover letter will the body of email sent to the director of the Food and Nutrition department of the University of Iowa Hospital. When the email is forwarded by the director to student employees, they will see the contents of the cover letter. The cover letter (attached) will discuss voluntary participation, goals and benefits of the study, and contact information of investigators.

PART G: CONSENT AND ASSENT PROCESS FOR ENROLLING MINORS

1) If your study involves minors, please explain how parental consent will be obtained prior to enrollment of the minor(s).

No minors involved

2) Please explain how assent will be obtained from minors, prior to their enrollment. Also, please explain if the assent process will be documented (*e.g., a simplified version of the consent form, combined with the consent document*). "Assent" according to the federal regulations "...means a child's affirmative agreement to participate in research. Mere failure to object should not, absent affirmative agreement, be construed as assent."

No minors involved

PART H: DATA ANALYSIS

1) Describe how the data will be analyzed (*e.g. statistical package, statistical evaluation, statistical measures used to evaluate results*)

SPSS will be used for quantitative data analysis of the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and frequencies will be calculated for all closed-ended items on the questionnaire. Factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha will be calculated to establish construct validity of various measurement items. Hierarchical regression and path analysis will be used to test hypotheses.

2) If applicable, please indicate the anticipated date that identifiers will be removed from completed survey instruments and/or audio or visual tapes will be erased:

Questionnaires and computer data will kept until a manuscript has been published to allow researchers access to data, if needed. No identifiers will be used on the questionnaires.
Month/Day/Year (5/31/06)

PART I: BENEFITS

1) Describe if there will be a benefit to the subject or if the benefit is to society. Please note that compensation is not a benefit according to the federal regulations.

Benefits of this study include the following:
- Help university dining facility managers understand formation of OCBs in student employees
- Provide insights into turnover intents of students employed in campus dining facilities
- Help university dining facility managers understand when empowerment strategies will be successful.

PART J: RISKS

The concept of risk goes beyond physical risk and includes risks to subjects' dignity and self-respect as well as psychological, emotional, legal, social or financial risk.

1) ☐ Yes ☒ No Is the ***probability*** of the harm or discomfort anticipated in the proposed research greater than that encountered ordinarily in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests?

2) ☐ Yes ☒ No Is the ***magnitude*** of the harm or discomfort greater than that encountered ordinarily in daily life, or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests?

3) Describe any risks or discomforts to the subjects and how they will be minimized and precautions taken.

No risks or discomforts are anticipated.

4) If this study involves vulnerable populations, including minors, pregnant women, prisoners, educationally or economically disadvantaged, what additional protections will be provided to minimize risks?

Vulnerable populations are not included in this study.

PART K: COMPENSATION

1) ☐ No ☒ Yes Will subjects receive compensation for their participation? If yes, please explain.

Do not make the payment an inducement, only a compensation for expenses and inconvenience. If a person is to receive money or another token of appreciation for their participation, explain when it will be given and any conditions of full or partial payment. (E.g., Volunteers will $5.00 for each of the five visits in the study or a total of $25.00 if he/she completes the study. If the subject withdraws from participation, they will receive $5.00 for each of the visits completed.) It is considered undue influence to make completion of the study the basis for compensation.

As a token of appreciation, upon completion and submission of the questionnaire, student respondent email addresses will be placed in a random drawing for two $50 cash prizes in early April. Winning students will be contacted via email. Student respondent email addresses will be obtained on a separate webpage. The researchers will not be able to match responses with email addresses.

PART L: CONFIDENTIALITY

1) Describe below the methods you will use to ensure the confidentiality of data obtained (e.g., *who has access to the data, where the data will be stored, security measures for web-based surveys and computer storage, how long data*

(specimens) will be retained, etc.)

Questionnaires will not contain identifiers. The two researchers identified above, are the only ones who will have access to questionnaire data. All print data will be stored in a locked file cabinet. Computer data will be stored on the researcher's personal computer. All data will be kept for one year after completion of the study.

Checklist for Attachments

The following are attached (please check ones that are applicable):

- ☐ A copy of the informed consent document **OR** ☒ Letter of information with elements of consent to subjects
- ☐ A copy of the assent form if minors will be enrolled
- ☐ Letter of approval from cooperating organizations or institutions allowing you to conduct research at their facility
- ☒ Data-gathering instruments (including surveys)
- ☐ Recruitment fliers or any other documents the subjects will see

Two sets of materials should be submitted for each project – the original signed copy of the application form, one copy and two sets of accompanying materials. Federal regulations require that one copy of the grant application or proposal must be submitted for comparison.

FOR IRB USE ONLY:

Initial action by the Institutional Review Board (IRB):

- ☒ Project approved. Date: 05-111 3/21/05
- ☐ Pending further review. Date: _____
- ☐ Project not approved. Date: _____

Follow-up action by the IRB:

Dianne Anderson
IRB Approval Signature

3/21/05
Date

APPENDIX D
Cover Letter

Dear ISU Dining Employee,

You may have noticed the flyers in your workplace at ISU Dining Services requesting participation in a research study about your work behaviors and turnover intentions as a student employed in university foodservice.

This research is endorsed by ISU Dining Services. You are asked to fill out a questionnaire by **April 4, 2005,** which should take **approximately 10-15 minutes.**

In appreciation for completing the questionnaire, your name will be placed in a random drawing for 1 of 2 $50 cash prizes. These drawings will be held during early April, and the winner will be notified by email.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and anonymous. Please click on the www.fcs.iastate.edu/hrim/diningsurvey/index.asp to complete the questionnaire. Upon completion, click the submit button. The responses will be received directly by us. We are the only ones who will see your responses that will be held in the strictest confidence and reported only as group data. Your response is essential for the success of this study and will provide important information for university foodservice operators.

If you have any questions regarding this research study, don't hesitate to contact us. If you have any questions about the rights of research subjects or research-related injury, please contact the Human Subjects Research Office, 2810 Beardshear Hall, (515) 294-4566; Ginny Austin Eason, IRB Administrator, (515) 294-4566, austingr@iastate.edu, or Diane Ament, Research Compliance Officer (515) 294-3115, dament@iastate.edu.

Thank you for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Swathi Ravichandran
Graduate Student
Foodservice and Lodging Management
Tel: 5151-451-9219
swathi@iastate.edu

Shirley Gilmore, PhD, RD, LD
Professor
Foodservice and Lodging Mgmt.
Tel: 515-294-9740
sgilmore@iastate.edu

APPENDIX E
Survey Instrument

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? (Please circle your answer). For questions related to manager, think about your immediate supervisor. For questions related to co-workers, think about the group of employees you work closest with.

PART A

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My manager helps me catch-up I have been absent	1	2	3	4	5
I help my manager catch-up when he/she has been absent	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers help me catch-up when I have been absent	1	2	3	4	5
I help my co-workers catch-up when they have been absent	1	2	3	4	5
My manager helps me when my work-load is heavy	1	2	3	4	5
I help my manager when his/her work-load is heavy	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers help me when my work-load is heavy	1	2	3	4	5
I help my co-workers when their work-loads are heavy	1	2	3	4	5
My manager assists me with my work (when not asked)	1	2	3	4	5
I assist my manager with his/her work (when not asked)	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers assist me with my work (when not asked)	1	2	3	4	5
I help my co-workers with their work (when not asked)	1	2	3	4	5
My manager takes time to listen to my work problems and worries	1	2	3	4	5
I take time to listen to my manager's work problems and worries	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers take time to listen to my work problems and worries	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I take time to listen to my co-workers' work problems and worries	1	2	3	4	5
My manager takes a personal interest in me	1	2	3	4	5
I take a personal interest in my manager	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers take a personal interest in me	1	2	3	4	5
I take personal interest in my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
My manager passes along new information to me	1	2	3	4	5
I pass along new information to my manager	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers pass along new information to me	1	2	3	4	5
I pass along new information to my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
My attendance at work is above average	1	2	3	4	5
If I am unable to come to work due to an emergency or last minute sickness, I find a replacement	1	2	3	4	5
I take underserved work breaks	1	2	3	4	5
I spend time at work studying/reading	1	2	3	4	5
I complain about insignificant things at work	1	2	3	4	5
I adhere to informal rules designed to maintain order	1	2	3	4	5
When work is slow, I find other tasks to do (example: cleaning, organizing etc.	1	2	3	4	5
I volunteer to work extra hours when I know that extra employees are needed.	1	2	3	4	5

PART B

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like working with my manager	1	2	3	4	5
I like working with my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
I don't get along with my manager	1	2	3	4	5
I don't get along with my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
I believe my manager will make a good friend	1	2	3	4	5
I believe my co-workers would make good friends	1	2	3	4	5
My manager doesn't ever try to treat me fairly	1	2	3	4	5
I have complete faith in the integrity of my manager	1	2	3	4	5
I feel a strong loyalty to my manager	1	2	3	4	5
I would support my manager in almost any emergency	1	2	3	4	5
My manager leads by "telling" rather than by "doing"	1	2	3	4	5
My manager is a good model for me to follow	1	2	3	4	5
My manager leads by example	1	2	3	4	5
My manager fosters collaboration among employees	1	2	3	4	5
My manager encourages employees to be "team players"	1	2	3	4	5
My manager develops team spirit among employees	1	2	3	4	5
My manager expects a lot from us	1	2	3	4	5
My manager insists on only the best performance	1	2	3	4	5
My manager will not settle for second best	1	2	3	4	5

PART C

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/ nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
People at lower levels in the organization should carry out the requests of people at higher levels without questions.	1	2	3	4	5
People at higher levels in organizations have a responsibility to make important decisions for people below them.	1	2	3	4	5
Once a manager makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.	1	2	3	4	5
In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
An organization's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest.	1	2	3	4	5
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	1	2	3	4	5
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5

PART D

Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5
I am generally satisfied with the nature of work I do in this job	1	2	3	4	5
Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my manager	1	2	3	4	5
I often think about leaving the organization	1	2	3	4	5
It is likely that I will look for another job in a different unit of ISU dining within the next 6 months	1	2	3	4	5
It is likely that I will look for another job outside foodservice within the next 6 months	1	2	3	4	5

PART E

1. Where do you work majority of the time (example: Maple-Willow-Larch, Hawthorn Court, Memorial Union, Union Drive Community Center etc.)?

   _____

2. What type of facility do you work at (example: Café, Food Court, Restaurant, Residential Dining Center etc.)?

   _____

3. Job title at ISU Dining

   ☐ Employee, no supervisory responsibilities
   ☐ Employee, with supervisory responsibilities
   ☐ Other
   (Please specify _____)

4. Reason for employment with ISU dining. Check all that apply

   ☐ Lack of transportation to work off-campus
   ☐ Place of residence is close to work
   ☐ Work study employee
   ☐ Allows for a flexible schedule
   ☐ Employment is related to degree / major
   ☐ Can only work on-campus
   ☐ Hourly rate of pay
   ☐ Other: (please specify) _____

5. Are you considering quitting?

   ☐Yes ☐ No
   If you answered "no," please go to question 7.

6. If you are considering quitting, which of the following reasons apply? Check all that apply.

   ☐ Can't keep up with school work-load
   ☐ Found another job with department in which I am enrolled
   ☐ Don't like to work in foodservice
   ☐ Don't like work hours
   ☐ Don't get along with supervisor
   ☐ Don't get along with co-workers
   ☐ Other: (please specify) _____

7. How many hours a week do you work with ISU Dining?

☐ Under 5
☐ 5 - 10
☐ 11 - 15
☐ 16 – 20

8. How many semesters have your worked in your current job?
_____ semesters.

9. How long have you worked with the current manager?
_____ semesters.

10. Is this your first job?

☐Yes ☐ No

11. Is this your first job in foodservice?

☐Yes ☐ No

12. How many co-workers do you work closely with? _____

13. What % of your total work time do you spend interacting with your co-workers?

☐ Under 25%
☐ 25% - 50%
☐ 51% - 75%
☐ 76% - 100%

14. What % of your total work time do you spend interacting with your manager?

☐ Under 25%
☐ 25% - 50%
☐ 51% - 75%
☐ 76% - 100%

15. Gender

☐ Male
☐ Female

16. What is your age? _____

17. What is your hourly rate of pay?

_____ / hour

18. What is your ethnic background?

- ☐ Caucasian
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Hispanic American
- ☐ Asian American
- ☐ American Indian/Native American or Alaska Native
- ☐ Other: (please specify) _____
- ☐ International (please specify country) _____

19. Education Year

- ☐ Freshman
- ☐ Sophomore
- ☐ Junior
- ☐ Senior
- ☐ Graduate Student
- ☐ Other: (please specify) _____

20. Major in college: _____

21. How are you paying for your education? Check all that apply.

- ☐ Self: _____%
- ☐ Parents/guardian: _____%
- ☐ Student Loans: _____%
- ☐ Work study: _____%
- ☐ Scholarships/grants: _____%
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____; _____%

APPENDIX F
Recruitment Flyer

Attention ISU Dining Employees!!!

Your help is needed to provide useful information regarding formation of work behaviors and turnover patterns in students employed in university dining services. For more information, check your email during the next few days for a message from diningsurvey@mail.fcs.iastate.edu.

As appreciation for participation in the study, your name will be entered in a random drawing for a chance to win 1 of 2 cash prizes.

For further information, please contact Swathi Ravichandran, Principal Investigator, (515) 292-5790, swathi@iastate.edu.

This study has been endorsed by ISU Dining Services